1656

SOCIAL STUDIES

for

CHILDREN

in a

DEMOCRACY

SECOND EDITION

MICHAELIS

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

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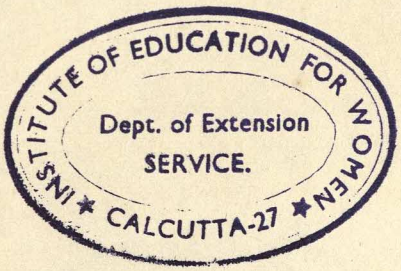

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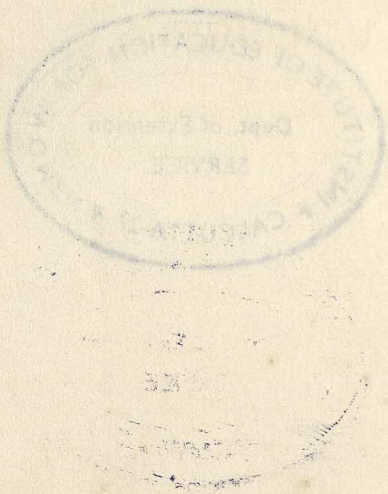

SECOND EDITION

SOCIAL STUDIES for Children in a Democracy

2 copies

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University of California, Berkeley

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION FOR WOMEN
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FOREWORD

This new edition is addressed to those who wish to improve the social education of children. It is a synthesis of principles and procedures related to the planning and development of experiences in the social studies. Although major emphasis is placed on the social studies, the fact is recognized that social living is broader than any one area of the curriculum and that social learning takes place in many of the child's experiences both in and out of school. Hence, many of the ideas developed apply to areas other than the social studies. It is hoped that students in teacher-education programs and school workers in service will find this volume helpful in developing increasingly higher levels of democratic citizenship as they work with boys and girls in America's schools.

The central theme of this edition is that democratic values and behavior must permeate every phase of the social studies program. Goals, planning, instructional procedures, materials of instruction, and evaluation must all be consistent with this theme. It is only by keeping the democratic theme constantly in view that maximum development of democratic citizenship can be realized.

Other basic factors are also emphasized throughout the book. Child growth characteristics and guidelines for the improvement of learning are treated with special reference to implications for the social studies. Techniques of group work are stressed in several different sections, along with practical examples of ways in which children can team together to solve problems of common concern. Evaluation as a continuous process is emphasized. Illustrative charts, checklists, and other devices that can be used to appraise the child's learning appear throughout the text, not solely in the chapter on evaluation. Practical applications of basic principles are stressed in each chapter. For example, in Chapter 1 specific techniques are suggested for utilizing democratic values and for developing democratic behavior. In Chapter 4

in a discussion of conditions of learning, attention is given to procedures that can be used to develop attitudes and build concepts. In short, the author believes that a unitary treatment is more effective than a compartmentalized analysis in which abstract principles are kept apart from practical procedures.

This edition differs from the first one in several ways. New material has been incorporated on practical ways to develop democratic behavior, on child development, on the growth and improvement of attitudes, on learning in relation to the child's self-concept, on the improvement of group work, map reading and map making, and the preparation of test items. Each chapter has been up-dated and new references have been included. Many new pictures, charts, and other examples of outstanding practices have been added to illustrate applications of principles. Captions and questions that accompany pictures have been designed to stimulate thinking and discussion. Each chapter is concluded by a new section of questions and activities that call for application of ideas presented in the text; both individual and group activities are suggested. Although sample units and other concrete examples of outstanding practices have been included, every effort has been made to avoid rule-of-thumb suggestions and the bag-of-tricks approach. The guiding principle has been to present ideas that will help to develop self-confidence and creativity on the part of teachers.

First consideration in this edition is given to the unique functions of the social studies with emphasis upon purposes, democratic values, and democratic behavior. Next come principles and patterns of organization, developmental characteristics of children, principles for the improvement of learning in the social studies, and the planning of unitary learning experiences. Then follows a discussion of group processes that are helpful in developing experiences with children. Activities and materials are next considered, with emphasis on guidelines for their selection and utilization. The two final chapters deal with evaluation of learning in the social studies and appraisal of the social studies program. Special attention is called to the Appendixes in which two sample units of work are included.

Acknowledgment is due to many individuals for assistance in preparing this revision. The suggestions received from Professor James B. Burr, Ohio State University, and Professor Loretta Klee Schell, Cornell University, were particularly helpful. The sample units in the Appendix were secured from Dr. Robert Gilchrist and Dorothy Swatzel, Pasadena City Schools.

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JOHN U. MICHAELIS

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SOCIAL STUDIES

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1

THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

The schools of America are dedicated to the preservation and extension of democratic ideals and to the development of the highest type of democratic citizenship on the part of each child. The discharge of this responsibility requires an educational program that will develop each child's potentialities to the fullest and at the same time bring growth in the competencies essential to democratic living. The major emphasis being given to citizenship education at the present time is concrete evidence of the importance accorded this responsibility by American educators.[1]

Every opportunity should be utilized to meet this challenge. Each area of the curriculum, experiences in school and on the playground, activities before and after school, and school-community enterprises should make contributions to the achievement of this goal. Of crucial importance are the social studies, which in many schools serve as the core for developing the social learnings needed in democratic living. Yet the social studies cannot do the job alone. A balanced curriculum must be planned for children and with children, and each area of the curriculum must be pointed toward the development of citizenship. The social studies, however, because of the experiences, content, and materials they encompass, have a unique role to play.

Major changes that have occurred in American society during recent decades accentuate the need for improved social education. Science and technology have created new problems and new opportunities. From a rural handicraft culture, America has moved to a highly centralized urban-industrial culture. The growth of industries has brought about shifts in population, changes in family life, and changes

[1] For example, see American Association of School Administrators, *Educating for American Citizenship*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1954.

in daily associations with others. Face-to-face relationships have been supplanted by person-to-group and group-to-group relationships as people endeavor to solve problems through unions, associations, and other groups. Communication with people in distant places can be carried on with undreamed-of speed and facility. Developing networks of transportation make possible the measurement of travel time in hours instead of days and weeks. Advances in science, medicine, and industry hold great promise for people everywhere. At the same time we are confronted with such problems as strengthening democracy throughout the world, preserving peace, conserving resources, adapting to increasing interdependence, improving community living and family life, developing international understanding, improving intergroup relationships, inculcating moral and spiritual values, and utilizing science for the good of all mankind.

The characteristics and problems of our society call for a program of education that is rooted deep in the American way of life. No longer can instruction turn away from life today and give exclusive consideration to days gone by. No longer can social lag be talked about in an ivory tower and ignored in our schools. Children must be guided to develop the competencies needed to meet problems as they arise, to become at home in the world in which they find themselves. A program of well-designed experiences must be provided; such vital learning cannot be left to chance. This is why the social studies must be given systematic attention in curriculum planning today.

In order to make a maximum contribution to social learning, the social studies must be clearly defined and specific goals must be identified. Basic democratic values must be considered and practical implications for their use must be derived. Specific examples of democratic behavior need to be examined with special reference to ways in which they can be made part of the social studies. With the foregoing in mind, the social studies can be organized and developed on solid foundations.

DEFINITION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The social studies are concerned with people and their interaction with their social and physical environment; they deal with human relationships. In the social studies, attention is given to ways of living and working together, use of the environment to meet basic human needs, customs, institutions, values, and life situations—the cultural heritage and its dynamic on-going characteristics. The social studies

in the elementary school embrace material related to human relationships drawn from history, geography, political science, economics, anthropology, sociology, science, and the arts. They include content and activities that may be used to develop insight into human relationships in such a way that children build competence in basic social processes and skills essential in democratic living. The social studies make rich contributions to the growth and development of children because the central function of the social studies is identical with the central purpose of education—the development of democratic citizenship.

How, then, do the social studies differ from the social sciences? Wesley has clearly pointed out the difference by stating that the social studies are "those portions of the social sciences . . . selected for instructional purposes." [2] The social sciences are scholarly and advanced studies of human relationships, while the social studies are an area of curriculum similar to the language arts.

What is included in the social studies? What topics and units of work [3] are emphasized in different grades? Although there are many differences among school systems, well-planned programs include content, activities, and materials pertaining to human relationships in the home, school, community and other places near and far in both time and space. Experiences are provided to help children become effective as persons and as members of groups. The following grade-by-grade overview shows the dominant emphasis in each grade and the wide range of units as reported in recent courses of study.

KINDERGARTEN AND GRADE I. The dominant emphasis in these grades is upon the immediate environment of the child. Units on Home, School, and Neighborhood are most frequently mentioned. Other unit titles include Pets, School Workers, Neighborhood Friends, Holidays, Seasons, Trucks, Health and Safety, the Playhouse, the Zoo or Circus, the Farm, the Store, the Service Station, the Toy Store, and Vacation Activities.

GRADE II. Units on the Community, with emphasis upon Community Workers or Helpers, are recommended in most courses of study. Units specifically mentioned are Our City, the Bakery, Farm, Dairy Farm, Library, Airport, Firemen, Policemen, Trains, Trucks,

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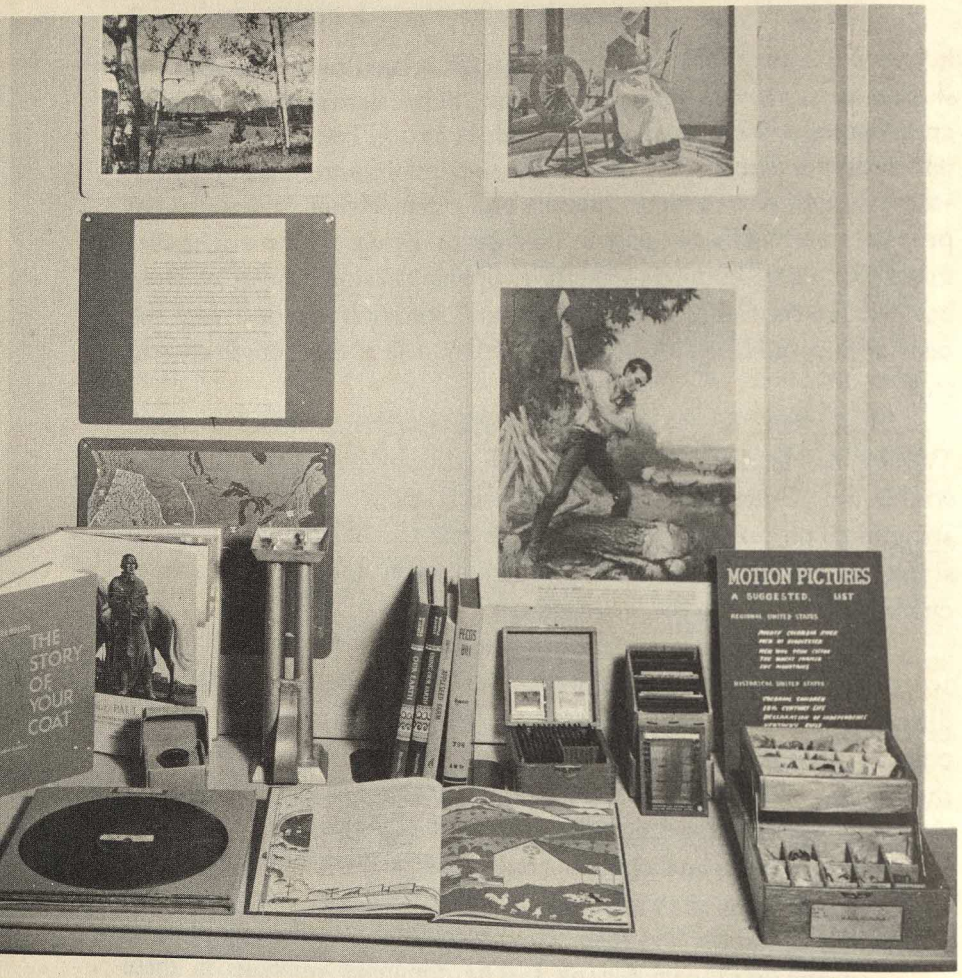
[2] E. B. Wesley, "The Social Studies," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (W. S. Monroe, Ed.). New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950, p. 1214.

[3] See one of the sample units of work in the Appendix to clarify the meaning intended by "unit of work." Detailed attention is given to unit planning in Chapter 5.



Los Angeles

Content from many fields of learning is drawn upon as needed to solve problems in the social studies, and a variety of activities and materials are utilized. Why should children learn more and be more interested when such an approach is used?

Holidays, Our Food, Our Clothing, Our Homes, Plants and Animals, and Having Fun in Our Community.

GRADE III. The Larger Community is emphasized with attention to community-wide functions and activities. The range of units includes Securing Food, Shelter and Clothing, Transportation, Communication, Education, Water Supply, the Airport, Boats and Harbors, the History of Our Community, Good Americans, Indians, Life in a Primitive Community, Children in Other Lands, Communities in Early Times.

GRADE IV. Units on other lands and the child's home state are

San Diego County

Civic responsibility may be developed through school-community service projects as well as through experiences in the classroom. What are some lasting values of experiences such as this?

most frequently mentioned. Unit titles include Living in Our State, Life in Other Lands, Mexico, Switzerland, Holland, Japan, High Lands, Low Lands, Cold Lands, Hot Lands, Wet and Dry Lands, Peoples of the Plains, Transportation, Communication, Conservation, Recreation, Early Settlers, Famous People.

GRADE V. Early American life and life in different regions are emphasized. Illustrative units include Colonial Life, Pioneer Life, the Westward Movement, Regions of the United States, Industries, Our Neighbors to the South, U. S. Possessions, Alaska, Hawaii, Famous Americans, Transportation, and Communication.

GRADE VI. The dominant emphases at this level appear to be Europe and European backgrounds of American history, the Western Hemisphere, and the Eastern Hemisphere. The diversity of topics is great, however, including American Neighbors, Europe, Africa, Asia,

China, Japan, Mexico, Latin America, the British Empire, Canada, United States Possessions, the Far East, Australia, the Pacific Islands, the World, Aviation, Conservation, the Scandinavian Countries, and the Mediterranean Countries.

GRADE VII. The most frequently mentioned topics are United States History, Civics, Geography, and the Eastern Hemisphere. Unit titles are Early American History, Old World Backgrounds, the Beginning of America, Our Government, the Constitution, Working Together in Our Community, the Modern Community, the Far East, Living on Other Continents, Peoples in Other Environments, Living in Other Countries, Early Man, and Industries.

GRADE VIII. American History, the Constitution, and the Growth of American Institutions are most frequently mentioned. Illustrative titles of units are the Growth of Democracy, American Government, the Industrial Revolution, Great Americans, Great Documents in United States History, the Beginning and Growth of Our Nation, Our Possessions, Our Relationships With Other Countries, and the United Nations.

This brief overview indicates that most programs begin with the immediate environment of the child and move outward to increasingly larger areas and more distant regions. The here and now is given first emphasis with attention in later grades to ways of living in other communities, the state, the nation, and countries throughout the world. Indians and primitive cultures appear to be receiving decreasing emphasis, while such topics as the expanded community, life in our state, the air age, our relations to other people, community problems, Latin America, world relations, the impact of science on daily living, and life situations vital to children are receiving increased emphasis. That a study of the United States is not neglected may be shown by pointing out the home, school, community emphasis in the primary grades, the emphasis on our state in the middle grades, and the stressing of United States History in Grades V, VII, VIII, and on an advanced level in secondary schools in many communities.

As units such as those listed above are developed, attention is given to major areas of living such as transportation, communication, production of goods, conservation, aesthetic and religious expression. Thus, as the program moves from home, school, and community to state, nation, and other lands, children develop increasingly deeper insights into ways in which man meets basic needs for food, shelter, clothing, and security. Other areas of the curriculum are drawn upon as needed to round out and enrich social learnings. For example, art,

literature, and music of other cultures become an important part of the units of work in which other cultures are studied. A variety of activities and materials are used to facilitate problem solving: planning, discussion, evaluation, varied group and individual activities, community resources, audio-visual materials, books, references. In short, the social studies as an area of the curriculum include content, activities, and materials organized and utilized to achieve definite goals of instruction.

Two other terms should be defined at this point: *social education* and *social learning*. *Social education* is used synonymously with *social studies* by many individuals, although the term implies a consideration of all school activities that contribute to social learning. *Social learning* is used to refer to the child's social growth and development resulting from experiences in and out of school. The term *social learning* is broader than *social studies* since it includes all the experiences of the child that tend to promote his social development.

Social learning takes place in all situations in which the child interacts with others—the community, the playground, the lunchroom, the social studies class, and other areas of the curriculum. In all school situations attention should be given to effective group processes, cooperation, helping others, working together, and similar aspects of socially desirable behavior. Social attitudes, ideals, and concepts grow and develop as a result of *all* the child's experiences, not just those in the social studies. This fact is being recognized in better school systems wherein the entire school program is utilized to contribute to social learning.

What, then, becomes the role of the social studies? Is the role of the social studies less significant? Need less attention be given to the social studies as an area of the curriculum?

The social studies become increasingly significant; in fact, all areas of the curriculum take on increasing significance when they are viewed as making contributions to the child's social competence. Each area must be analyzed carefully to determine ways in which it can contribute to social learning. The specific contributions of the social studies are considered in the following section.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES TO THE PURPOSES OF EDUCATION

The functions or goals of the social studies should be viewed with special reference to the purposes of education in American de-

mocracy.[4] Each area of the curriculum should be viewed in terms of the unique contributions it can make to the over-all purposes of education. Viewed in this light the social studies can and do make many specific contributions to self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. Several concrete examples of ways in which the social studies contribute to these major purposes follow.

SELF-REALIZATION. The social studies contribute to self-realization by providing experiences that bring about personal growth. The child's need to develop an "inquiring mind" can be met in part through a consideration of vital problems and situations involving human relationships and the individual's role in group endeavors. Many opportunities exist in the social studies to use and strengthen group-action skills, language skills, number skills, and study skills in attacking problems of importance to the group. Listening, discussing, observing, experimenting, constructing, dramatizing, reading, reporting, and evaluating can be used in such a way as to meet individual needs and to improve each child's competence in individual and group enterprises. An understanding of the importance of personal and community health in group living grows out of studies of ways of living in home, community, and state. Self-direction, cooperation, responsibility, and similar modes of behavior can be developed in group activities in the social studies, thus helping each child to increase his personal effectiveness in living and working with others.

HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS. Since the social studies are concerned primarily with human relationships, they make many contributions to the realization of this goal. Respect for others at home and abroad should be emphasized in each major area of experience or unit. Friendship, cooperation, and courtesy should be put to use and developed in cooperative activities in the social studies. Appreciation of the home, family ideals, and the role of different members of the family should be engendered at all levels of instruction as groups are studied at home and abroad. Democratic values and ways of working together should characterize group processes. The atmosphere in the classroom and throughout the school should be conducive to the establishment of warm human relationships in the daily living of children. Understandings and social concepts learned in the social studies should be put to use in other activities in and out of school; those learned outside the

[4] Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938.

social studies should be drawn upon and used to enrich the social studies.

Economic Efficiency. The social studies in the elementary school can contribute to economic efficiency by providing experiences that build attitudes, understandings, and skills essential to effective workmanship. Attention must be given to the use of effective work habits and study skills in carrying out individual and group responsibilities. Through group planning attention should be given to the requirements of various tasks, ways to achieve them, and the role of each individual in accomplishing accepted responsibilities. As different groups in the community are studied, appreciation of the work they do and their contributions to community living should be emphasized; and, as children mature, attention may well be given to problems of consumer education. It is out of such experiences that children develop the backgrounds needed to become competent workers in home, school, and community activities.

Civic Responsibility. A sense of civic responsibility can be developed in a variety of ways in the social studies. The acceptance and discharge of responsibilities cooperatively planned by the group is a first consideration. Being a responsible member of the group and helping to achieve group purposes is without doubt a fundamental aspect of the growth of civic responsibility. Appreciating the needs and contributions of others and giving assistance to others are likewise basic. Respect for group-made standards, respect for differences of opinion, and regard for constituted authority need emphasis in the program. Community and school service projects provide an opportunity for active participation in civic-centered activities. Loyalty to American ideals, values, and ways of living should grow and develop as children mature. The place of people, laws, and institutions in democratic living should emerge as a major concept in human relationships.

PURPOSES IN CURRICULUM GUIDES

The goals of the social studies as proposed in curriculum guides further illustrate the contributions that can be made to the purposes of education. Although the following examples vary in form and amount of detail, they emphasize the role of the social studies in developing attitudes, understandings, appreciations, skills, concepts, and functional information essential to democratic living.

SAN DIEGO COUNTY, CALIFORNIA[5]

The purpose of the social studies program is to provide experiences that will help each child live effectively in our democratic society. In this society, the individual is expected to interact with others in such a way as to realize his own greatest potentialities and at the same time contribute to the betterment of the group. . . . The child will be expected to develop in knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes, and appreciations as described in the following pupil behaviors:

Acquiring functional information and basic understandings of how man interacts with the physical and social environment of his home, neighborhood, state, nation, and world in the satisfaction of his needs.

Developing understanding of the institutions of democracy and of loyalty to them, believing in the basic human freedoms, and becoming skilled in the democratic processes as a way of improving human relationships.

Gaining understanding and appreciation of the different contributions of various cultures, groups, and individuals in the advancement of civilization.

Gaining skill in critical thinking and problem solving especially as these skills function in human relationships.

Working with confidence, responsibility, and effectiveness in group activities as well as independently.

Accepting the decisions of the majority and at the same time respecting the point of view of minorities.

Accepting responsibility for one's own acts and for the maintenance of one's independence and self-direction.

Gaining insight into moral, ethical, and spiritual values as forces in human behavior and human relationships.

Developing social attitudes consistent with democratic values such as cooperation, open-mindedness, and respect for the worth of others.

Developing an enduring interest in human problems coupled with a sense of responsibility to act in ways conducive to social progress.

Coping intelligently with change, adjusting ideas and behaviors to developing situations, and participating effectively in bringing about new conditions for the improvement of group and community living.

Gaining skills for obtaining information, such as listening, observing, reading and interpreting printed materials, graphic materials, maps and globes; experimenting; and interviewing.

Gaining skills for sharing information, such as discussing, reporting

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[5] San Diego County Schools. *Some Guidelines for Organizing and Teaching the Social Studies*, 1954, pp. 6-7.

orally, reporting in writing, constructing, dramatizing, singing, dancing, and drawing.

Achieving feelings of adequacy as a person and as an accepted member of the group.

WISCONSIN [6]

The social studies program should foster growth of children and youth in the following understandings, attitudes, and skills:

Understandings

1. Of the democratic faith and its meaning for human welfare and happiness.
2. Of the application of democratic faith in the development of the American heritage.
3. Of the forces which have made for world interdependence and the need for world organization.
4. Of the historical and geographical reasons for the behavior of regional and national groups.
5. Of the local community and its problems, and the need for wide participation in community concerns by all citizens.
6. Of the significance in social problems of the mental health and emotional balance of individual human beings.

Attitudes

1. That all human beings regardless of race, national origin, color, or any matter over which they have no control, are entitled to equal rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.
2. That we concern ourselves with achieving and improving human welfare and democratic liberties everywhere in the world.
3. That all citizens should participate actively in working toward the solution of community problems for social betterment.
4. That reflective group thinking can serve as an approach toward the solution of social problems. Such thinking on a group basis is necessary to bring about an informed and enlightened public opinion.

Skills and/or Abilities

1. The ability to take part in group discussion.
2. The ability to take part in group planning.
3. The ability to think reflectively on social problems.
4. The ability to search out and use valid and adequate sources of information.
5. The ability to evaluate ideas and opinions on controversial problems

[6] Taken from *Scope and Sequences of the Social Studies*, Bulletin 14. Madison, Wisconsin: State Department of Education, 1947, pp. 6-7.

offered by and through radio, movies, newspapers, periodicals, books, etc., in a manner which will contribute to the general welfare.

SUMMARY OF MAJOR PURPOSES

Many other excellent statements of social studies goals could be given. Instead, a summary of major purposes as reported in recent courses of study is presented below to highlight the most significant goals and to illustrate current trends. In reading it note that the emphasis is upon action and behavior rather than upon passive acceptance of information.

The major purposes of the social studies are to help each child to:

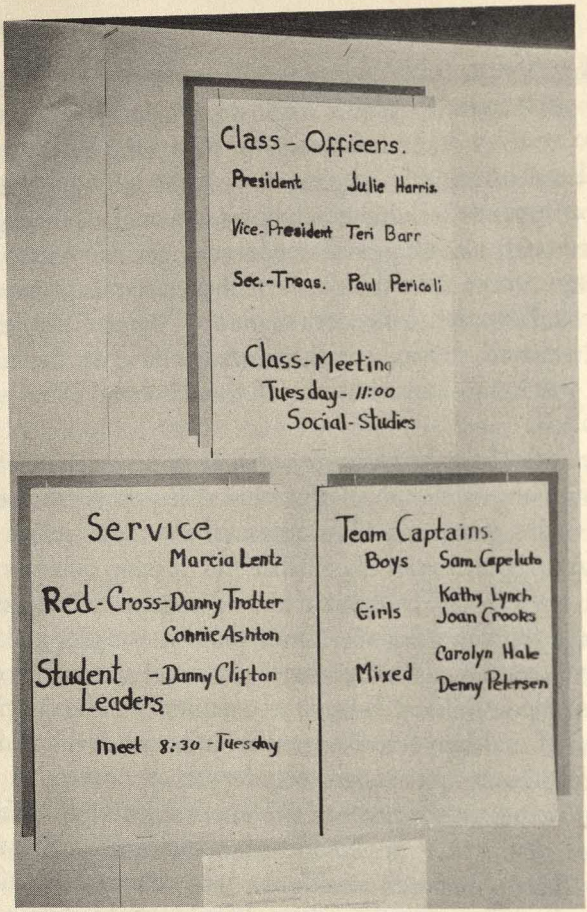
1. Become a democratic person whose behavior is guided by democratic values, who is loyal to the American way of life, and who appreciates the sacrifices and contributions made to promote democratic living here and throughout the world.
2. Develop modes of behavior consistent with democratic values, such as responsibility, concern for others, open-mindedness, creativeness and cooperation, and to use them in relationships with others.
3. Develop group-action skills and social competency in inter-group relations, recognizing the value of group decision making, showing respect for differences of opinion, and exhibiting high regard for rights of minorities yet abiding by majority decisions.
4. Develop the ability to think critically and creatively and use problem-solving skills in situations involving human relationships; use dependable sources of information; locate, evaluate, select, organize, and present information effectively; and base action on sound conclusions.
5. Appreciate and respect other persons, cultural similarities and differences among peoples, and the contributions of others to our ways of living, realizing that human dignity and personality are of first importance in human relationships regardless of race, color, or class.
6. Acquire and use functional information, concepts, and understandings of: basic social functions of human living such as production of goods and services, transportation and communication, conservation of resources, aesthetic and religious expression, education, recreation, and government; the impact of scientific advance and education upon ways of living; the effect of moral and spiritual values upon human behavior; ways to improve family life, community living, and national-international welfare; and the increasing interdependence characteristic of modern living.
7. Become responsive to needs and problems of others and act courageously and with integrity to bring about changes consistent with democratic ideals and processes.

If purposes such as the foregoing are to be achieved, democratic values must permeate every phase of the program. In addition, democratic behavior must be developed in a concrete and practical manner. The social studies have a unique contribution to make in this regard. The meaning of democratic values and processes can be clarified through actual use and through study of their impact on the lives of others. Boys and girls can learn in a firsthand way the finest kind of democratic behavior through the many cooperative experiences that are planned and developed in the social studies. Loyalty to American ideals and appreciation of the contributions of others to our democratic heritage can be developed through carefully planned experiences in units of work. In later years other countries and international organizations can be studied in light of their efforts to promote democratic living in an independent world. Democratic values and behavior learned in the social studies can be used and carried over into situations which arise in the home, school, and community. Attention is given to practical ways to accomplish this in the remaining sections of this chapter.

DEMOCRATIC VALUES AND PROCESSES

Democracy is an effective way of living based upon fundamental and lasting ideals. Individuals are respected, have dignity, make choices and decisions, assume and discharge responsibilities, use and help to preserve inalienable rights, and have opportunities to work with others in the pursuit of common interests. Group welfare is promoted and maintained through cooperative action, respect for human equality, concern for others, and faith in mankind. Creative expression and thinking are nurtured and used for development of the individual and improvement of the general welfare of the group. High value is placed upon the use of intelligence in solving group problems, meeting individual needs, resolving conflicts, and improving human welfare. Concern for others, self-direction, critical thinking, cooperative group action, self-respect, acceptance of responsibility, and freedom of expression are key ingredients in democratic relationships. All of these are significant in daily living and are the birthright of America's children.

If democratic values are really to be learned by children, they must be *lived* in all phases of the school program. If the teacher, other school workers, and children do not live democratically in their relationships with one another, much negative learning will take place. Through daily living which is democratically planned and guided,



Albany, California

Children need opportunities to be leaders and followers and to render service to the group. Can you think of other situations that might be used for this purpose?

are significant aspects of democratic living. In classrooms where this value is used the responsibilities that go with self-direction and self-control are emphasized in situations vital to the individual and the group. Opportunities are provided for children to express themselves creatively, to develop and use the skills needed to be self-directive, and to accept reasonable consequences when responsibilities are neglected. The great contributions of individuals to our democratic heritage in the past and present are appreciated because of their impact on living today. The place of regulations and laws in promoting self-direction in socially acceptable ways is considered in local, state, national, and international settings.

Freedom of inquiry with the free play of intelligence upon all problems is essential. In classrooms where this value is used, freedom of thinking, speaking, and believing and full recognition of the rights of each individual are basic. Through group discussion, problems are defined and ways of attacking them are developed creatively. Skills used in critical thinking are emphasized through problem solving, which includes such steps and procedures as:

Discovering and defining problems.
Suggesting proposals and considering opinions.
Being open-minded about other proposals and opinions.
Finding and verifying information related to proposed solutions.
Selecting the most appropriate information.
Recognizing emotion as a factor in group interaction.
Basing conclusions on facts.
Organizing facts and conclusions along with a plan of action.
Carrying out the plan and evaluating its effectiveness.[8]

Majority decision with minority protection is used to determine policy. When this value is used, group discussions are guided so that all points of view may be heard. Group standards are developed and carried out by all members of the group; they are changed on the basis of evaluation carried out in such a way that each person can make suggestions. Children have opportunities to learn that each individual in the group has rights and responsibilities which must be respected and not subjected to undue pressure. Minorities are always heard so that the policies they are seeking to establish can be considered by the majority. Persuasion based on reason is used to bring about change. Experts are consulted when problems arise which cannot be handled by the group. Real teamwork and fair play characterize the making of plans and decisions by both majority and minority groups.

Each individual is respected and accorded equal justice and equal opportunity. In classrooms where this value is used, race, creed, economic status, or social position have no effect whatsoever on the child's opportunities. A wide range of experiences are provided so that each child has guidance in developing his capacities to the maximum. The unique contributions of each child are sought by the teacher. All children in the group, including those with varied racial and nationality backgrounds, develop feelings of belonging and prestige through contributions to group activities.

Individual responsibility and freedom go hand in hand. When

[8] See Chapter 6 for detailed suggestions.

this value is used, group standards are made and carried out so that each child will learn to use freedom in a responsible manner as he engages in dramatic play, construction, and other activities. Through firsthand experience children learn that freedom exists only as the rights of others are respected and as responsibilities are carried out. All children have opportunities to discharge various duties in the classroom. Freedom of thought and expression are encouraged; and emphasis is given to the importance of accuracy, reasonableness, and appropriateness in stating thoughts and opinions. In the acceptance of freedom of expression, children are guided to recognize the need for permitting others to express their thoughts and feelings, to take turns in planning and evaluating classroom activities. As children mature, they develop increasing insight into the struggle for freedom and an appreciation of man's steady progress in accepting responsibility that has characterized man's efforts to build a more democratic society.

The examples cited above are a few of the ways in which teachers and children may live by democratic values as they work together in the elementary school. Since children learn what they live, this is one of the most practical approaches a teacher can use to develop democratic citizenship. As a teacher works with a given group, other ways in which democratic values can be used in the program should be discovered.

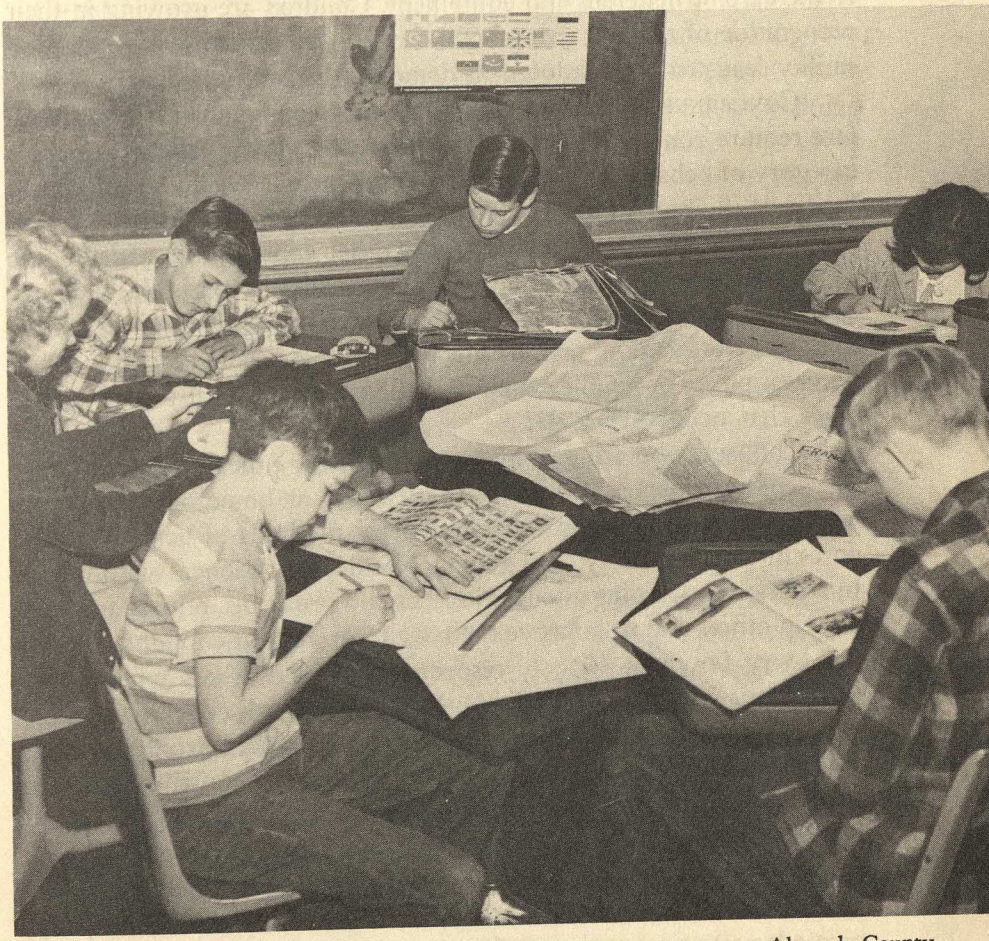
DEMOCRATIC BEHAVIOR

In addition to using democratic values in the social studies and throughout the school program, the teacher must be aware of the kind of behavior which is consistent with democratic values. Little will be gained unless the behavior that children develop is democratic in nature. After all, the acid test of learning is the behavior of the child. The teacher must be able to recognize democratic behavior in various situations in order to make effective plans, to guide children to higher levels of development, and to evaluate their growth.

Implicit in the foregoing statement of democratic values are the following categories of behavior: responsibility, concern for others, open-mindedness, creativeness, and cooperation. Each unit of work that is planned should make a contribution to the development of the foregoing categories of behavior. Attention is now given to a description of specific aspects of behavior in each category. The descriptions are based upon anecdotal records of children at work in various situations in the social studies. As you read them, try to anticipate practical ways

in which you can develop democratic behavior through experiences in the social studies.

RESPONSIBILITY. The acceptance and discharge of responsibility is an essential element in democratic living. In fact, unless members of a group carry out their responsibilities, little or nothing can be accomplished, and chaos and anarchy may result. For every privilege, for every plan of action, and for every set of standards developed to improve group living, there are related responsibilities that must be carried out. The success of American democracy depends upon the



Alameda County

Provide for individual responsibilities in research activities set up as part of cooperative problem solving. What other responsibilities can children accept as they select, organize, and present information related to questions and problems that arise in the social studies?

Alameda County

Here is a type of cooperative activity that should not be overlooked. Note the roles different children are taking. What other examples of cooperation might be found in creative expression?

the daily life of the group. They are growing in the ability to develop the skills which are needed for clearer expression of their ideas. They evaluate their own work and the work of others in a helpful and sympathetic manner, giving attention to *why* and *how* they do things as well as to *what* they do. Through construction, discussion, dramatic representation, research, problem solving, and the like, the teacher has many opportunities to develop creativeness in the social studies.

Cooperation. The ability to cooperate, to work with others, to be a member of a team, is of prime importance in our culture. The teamwork employed in industry, education, science, government and other significant activities is illustrative of this point. From early days when neighbors worked together to raise the walls of a log cabin, or to have a town meeting, to the present time when a crew of workers erects a skyscraper, or a group participates in a meeting of the city council, progress has been accelerated because of cooperation. And

now cooperation among nations of the world looms large as a major problem of our times.

Children who are developing cooperative behavior share ideas, materials, and pleasure with others. They are eager to work with others, to secure and give help, and to contribute to group enterprises. They accept responsibilities and carry them out tactfully and courteously, and with consideration for the rights and responsibilities of others. They help in group planning, action, and evaluation in a variety of group enterprises in home, school, and community. When plans are changed on the basis of group decisions, they continue to work jointly with others without grumbling or bickering. They recognize the contribution of joint action in home, school, and community to both individual and group welfare. As they mature and undertake advanced units in the social studies, they gain insight into the value of cooperation in national and international situations.

Another point should be emphasized regarding cooperation. As children engage in cooperative group work under expert teacher guidance, the other four categories of behavior can be brought into play in a unified manner. Responsibility must be taken for various tasks; the showing of concern for others helps to improve working relationships; creativeness is needed in tackling problems as they arise; and open-mindedness is necessary as points of view are shared and solutions to problems are proposed. This is as it should be since it would be highly impractical to isolate each category of behavior and try to develop it in isolation of the other. After all, the child's behavior is unitary, and any description of various components of it is made only to clarify the elements involved in it. In Chapter 6, specific suggestions are made regarding group processes that can be used in the social studies to bring about cooperative group action and thereby develop higher levels of competence in solving problems that arise in human relationships.

MAKING SPECIFIC PLANS TO DEVELOP DEMOCRATIC BEHAVIOR

Each unit of work in the social studies can make specific contributions to the development of the behaviors outlined above. Three approaches need to be used in this regard. First, plans must be made for specific things that children can *do*, since it is through actual participation that democratic behavior is lived and learned. Second, plans must be made for children to *observe* democratic behavior in action.

Third, plans must be made for children to *study* and analyze democratic behavior as portrayed in books, films, and other instructional resources. Note the three levels of abstractness in the suggested planning: *doing*, *observing*, and *studying*. While actual doing is essential, observing and studying should not be minimized for they make it possible to extend and enrich the child's concept of democratic behavior. The three examples which follow are illustrative of the type of planning that should be undertaken in each unit of work.

1. In a unit of work on Home and Family Living, *cooperation* may be developed to higher levels through such experiences as the following.

Doing: Planning and arranging a playhouse; sharing tools and materials, working together, and helping each other make furniture, home furnishings, dishes, table settings, dolls and doll clothes, pet cages, and scrapbooks; planning and engaging in dramatic play centered on home activities; making and carrying out standards to use on a field trip to see a home under construction; taking turns and sharing in group discussion of unit activities.

Observing: Mother and father, and brothers and sisters, working together at home; children cooperating at home and at school; monitors and committees at work; men working together to build a house in the neighborhood; ways in which the janitor, teachers, and children in school work together to make the school a happy, clean place to work and play.

Studying: Flat pictures, film strips, and films showing members of a family gardening, cleaning the yard, shopping, having fun together, and the like; picture and story books which portray cooperation among children, children and parents, and adults engaging in neighborhood activities; stories and poems that highlight teamwork in home and family living. Responsibility, creativeness, concern for others, and open-mindedness may be outlined in a similar manner for this unit of work.

2. Ways in which *responsibility* may be developed are shown in a unit on Community Living. If you are planning to teach a unit on The Community, you should work out similar examples for the other categories of behavior.

Doing: Developing and sticking to standards of conduct on a field trip; observing safety regulations in parks, playgrounds, and on transportation facilities; using tools and materials properly in making model buildings and other objects; engaging in dramatic play centered on activities of community workers; helping to make picture collections

of community workers and activities; carrying out specific responsibilities in making and operating a center of interest such as a post office, airport, or harbor; taking turns and making contributions in discussing, planning, and evaluating activities as the unit develops.

Observing: Responsibilities carried out by children in the classroom at work on murals, layouts, and other activities; the work of policemen, post office employees, and other community workers; duties of nurses, doctors, and other health workers; men at work building a house in the neighborhood; the work of employees in stores, parks, and on playgrounds; and demonstrations put on by individuals from local factories, the airport, or dairy to highlight responsibilities of various workers.

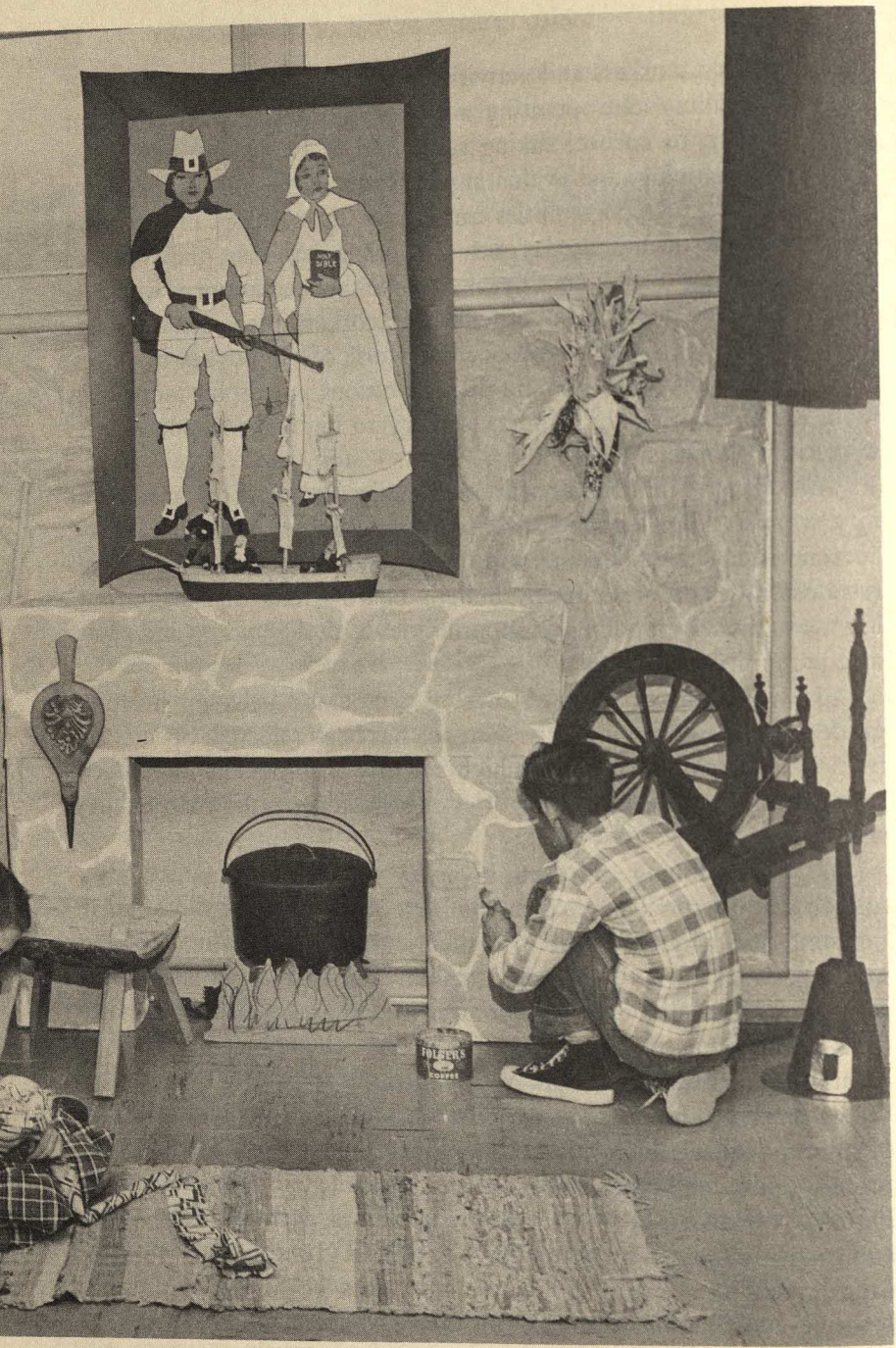
Studying: Film strips on firemen, policemen, and other community workers; films on fire prevention, community health, and safety; current events from newspapers, radio, and television dealing with responsibilities of local citizens; bulletin board arrangements and reading materials which portray responsibilities of both children and adults in community living.

3. To illustrate ways to develop democratic behavior in upper grades, a unit on Life in Early America has been selected. Specific attention is given to ways in which *creativeness* may be developed, recognizing that the other categories of behavior may be analyzed in a similar manner.

Doing: Planning and using a variety of ways to organize information, i.e., pictorial summaries, booklets, dioramas, and slides; creating songs and rhythms related to such activities as quilting, husking, hunting, weaving, and churning; making instruments to accompany songs and rhythms; drawing pictures and murals; making candles, dolls with authentic costumes, utensils and other objects for use in creative dramatics, discussion, and reports.

Observing: Individuals invited to school to demonstrate the use of spinning wheels, looms, and other objects used in early days; models, utensils, quilts, and other objects arranged in an exhibit, or museum, to highlight creative uses of materials in early times; authentic folk dances and songs performed by community or school groups; plays and pageants given to celebrate holidays and events of historical interest; creative contributions made by members of the class as the unit of work develops.

Studying: Pictures, films, books, and other instructional materials which portray creativeness in the use of resources for food, shelter, and clothing; art, music, and literature of early times; contributions



San Diego County

Materials can be arranged creatively to present and share significant learnings. Why are creative arrangements such as this one effective in improving social learning?

of great men and women during the early days of our country; explorers and ways in which they blazed trails and opened up new territories; radio and television programs of people and events in early times.

The foregoing examples are illustrative of practical procedures that teachers have used to develop democratic behavior. In subsequent chapters, other examples of activities which can be used to develop democratic behavior will be presented. The point should be emphasized here, however, that examples on the "doing level" can be found in nearly all activities included in the social studies which involve group work; they also can be found in daily living throughout the school program. On the "observing level," children can be guided to note examples in the classroom, throughout the school, and in the community. As historical units or units on faraway places are developed, plays, festivals, pageants, programs developed by school and community groups, and demonstrations by individuals invited to school may be witnessed by children. On the third level—the studying level—books, films, film strips, and other resources are replete with good examples of democratic behavior if we but look for them. Television and radio programs should not be overlooked, particularly those related to topics in the social studies. Finally, current events are a good source of examples. Occasionally, it is possible to arrange a bulletin board of pictures and clippings which emphasize concern for others, open-mindedness, or one of the other categories of behavior. By giving systematic attention to the development of democratic behavior in all of these ways, a practical and realistic contribution to democratic citizenship can be made.

In this chapter the social studies have been defined as an area of the curriculum. Major purposes have been outlined and democratic values and behaviors have been discussed. In the next chapter consideration is given to types of programs and ways in which the social studies have been organized to bring about significant outcomes.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES [9]

1. Obtain a local curriculum guide and check it for the following:
   How are the social studies defined?
   Is citizenship stressed? How is good citizenship defined?

[9] At the end of each chapter are listed questions and activities to stimulate discussion and application of principles and practices presented in the text. There will not be "right" answer or "rule-of-thumb" solutions in most instances. Discuss the pros and cons and try to arrive at answers and solutions that are reasonable in your par-

What specific objectives are given for the social studies?

How do the objectives compare with those given in the text?

Is democratic behavior emphasized?

2. Write out in your own words a definition of the social studies appropriate in your situation, discuss it with others and see if they agree.

3. Prepare a statement of objectives of the social studies that you believe to be most important. Discuss your statement with others and see if they agree.

4. Discuss the democratic values outlined in this chapter. In what ways can you use them as you work with children? In what ways can they be used as you work with fellow teachers? With parents?

5. Visit a classroom and note specific examples of democratic behavior. Try to find examples for each of the categories discussed in this chapter. Share and discuss your examples with fellow students.

6. Prepare a list of specific ways in which democratic behavior might be developed in a unit of work you are planning to teach. Or, analyze one of the units in the Appendix. Make a worksheet as follows for each category of democratic behavior:

RESPONSIBILITY:

Doing: _____

_____

_____

Observing: _____

_____

_____

Studying: _____

_____

_____

Note specific examples in the appropriate spaces. Share and discuss your examples with others, endeavoring to build up an extensive compilation of practical ways in which democratic behavior can be developed.

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ticular situation. Whenever possible, visit classrooms and discuss the questions and activities with teachers who are developing a good social studies program. Secure local and state courses of study, units of work and guides for teachers, and study them for related information and techniques. In every instance, make specific and practical adaptations to children in the community where you are teaching or plan to teach.

The writer has found that "buzz sessions" made up of five to eight individuals are helpful in discussing questions and in working on suggested activities. In some instances two or three individuals may pool their efforts to real advantage. Those interested in teaching children in a particular grade should share ideas whenever specific grade-level applications are involved.

Select for study and discussion those questions and activities of greatest importance to you. Omit any of little relevance in your situation. It is better to do a few pertinent ones thoroughly, with specific application of principles in the text, than to attempt to handle a large number in a superficial and hasty manner. Be sure to raise questions with fellow students and your instructor on any points that are not clear, or that you do not accept. In short, apply good social studies principles and practices as problems involved in developing a good social studies program are approached.

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2

PRINCIPLES AND PATTERNS OF ORGANIZATION

If the social studies are to make a maximum contribution to the improvement of democratic living, systematic attention must be given to the over-all organization of the program. Types of programs and patterns of organization in use at the present time must be considered. The comprehensiveness or scope of the program, and the sequence of units to be included in different grades require review and study. Legal provisions must be met as they apply in different states. Guidelines for use in developing an effective pattern of organization also must be considered. Attention is given to these and related problems in this chapter.

It should be emphasized that the social studies are an integral part of the child's total curriculum, not a separate phase set aside from other learning experiences. Nor should the social studies in the elementary school be planned and developed without reference to the social studies in the secondary school, since in better programs both are viewed as an integral part of a continuum. Thus, in the discussion which follows it is recognized that the social studies in the elementary school, although considered separately to develop certain understandings, are conditioned by over-all curriculum planning. With this in mind consideration is given first to types of programs that exist at the present time.

TYPES OF PROGRAMS

Analyses of curriculum guides coupled with firsthand visits to school systems indicate that there are several different kinds of social studies programs in operation at the present time. Let us consider each type, recognizing, of course, that there is some overlapping and that

a given school system may not be a "pure type," but may well have features of two or more types.

These programs have been classified in many ways [1] but essentially they can be divided into two groups, namely the subject-matter approach and the experiences-of-children approach. In the subject-matter group are such approaches as *separate textbooks for each subject*, *separate subject units*, and *correlated subject units*. The experiences-of-children approach is coming to be termed *social living* in some school systems. The *comprehensive social-studies-units* approach as it actually operates in some schools is a combination of the subject-matter and experiences-of-children approaches.

Textbook for Each Subject. This type of program offers textbook instruction in geography, history, and civics. A basic textbook is selected in each field and is used to define the scope of the program. The sequence of content as outlined in the textbooks is usually followed. Children are directed in their study of the textbooks, and class recitations are used to check up on material in the texts. Maps and films are selected and used as they relate to the textbook. Concepts and terms presented in the textbook are taught in much the same way as in the reading program. The ideas in geography are treated separately, although there may be a little correlation with history now and then. The course in civics is viewed as a study of government, and a broad conception of citizenship in daily living is neglected. Facts and information are emphasized and there is little relation to immediate needs and problems of children in this type of program. Cooperative group planning in the social studies is not employed because each subject is approached logically in terms of the content in the textbooks. Very little is done in the primary grades since reading skills are not highly developed, although a few texts may be read if they are within the comprehension of the children. Evaluation is formal, consisting of teacher-made tests and teacher-directed recitations designed to "discover what the children know." Only a few elementary school programs use this approach at the present time.

Separate-Subject Units. This approach to the social studies moves away from sole reliance upon a single textbook and presents separate units in geography, history, and civics. Adopted textbooks are used along with other books, pictures, and materials. The separate-subject approach is maintained through the use of so-called units in geography, history, and civics. The units of subject matter deal with prob-

[1] For a good analysis, see H. B. Bruner, *et al.*, *What Our Schools Are Teaching*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941.

lems in each subject field such as the Geography of Our State or the Story of Our Country, and there is little relationship between subjects. Some attempts may be made to relate units in geography and history by having one immediately follow or parallel the other, e.g., a unit on Geography of Our State followed by a unit on History of Our State. The order of the units is followed as given in the course of study, pupil activity is teacher-directed, and there is little or no relationship to other areas of the curriculum. The program is usually begun in Grade IV because "the home, family, and community are read about in the primary readers." Evaluation typically consists of a test given after each subject-matter unit.

Correlated-Subject Units. In the social studies program consisting of correlated sub-matter units, materials from geography, history, and civics are related and taught in units of work, designed to impart subject matter to children. The scope of the program is defined in terms of the subject matter outlined in the course of study or in the units. Basic themes or generalizations such as adaptation and interdependence may be emphasized. Textbooks and audio-visual materials are utilized as they apply to topics in each unit. There is little relationship between the social studies and other areas of the curriculum. Little attention is given to children's needs and problems since the program is largely teacher-directed. The program may begin in the primary grades with units on home, school, and community, and continue with studies of other places and peoples in the intermediate grades. Some schools begin the program in Grade III or IV. The geography and history of the various peoples studied are considered in relation to topics in each unit of work. The needs and interests of children are not used to select experiences and materials. Tests are given after or during the unit with considerable attention to facts and information in each correlated unit.

Comprehensive Social Studies Units. This approach combines history, geography, civics, and content from other fields into one broad field of study. Attempts are made to relate each unit to other areas or fields of the curriculum. Broad comprehensive units such as the Home, Our Community, and Life in Early America are undertaken. The scope of the program may be defined either in terms of social functions such as transportation, consumption of goods, and conservation or, in some cases, in terms of themes such as adaptation to the environment and interdependence of peoples. Special attention is given to needs and interests of children and to the use of community resources. Cooperative group planning and evaluation are viewed

as significant phases of the program. Other areas of the curriculum such as art, music, and language are drawn upon and used as needed in the study of various problems. Recognition is given to related social learning in group activities on the playground, in the cafeteria, on committees, and in student council. Efforts are made to develop basic social concepts, constructive attitudes, and democratic behavior. Functional applications are made to situations outside the social studies units. Evaluation is cooperative and continuous and includes, in addition to tests, such techniques as group discussion, self-evaluation by children, and informal checklists. This type of program attempts to develop basic concepts needed in democratic living and at the same time gives attention to needs of children. It is a "hybrid" type, bridging the gap between the subject-matter approaches and the social-living approach.

Social Living. In programs emphasizing a social-living approach, the entire school program is viewed as making contributions to social learning. This type of program differs from preceding ones in that subject-matter boundaries are not clearly established and maintained. The experiences of children are the point of departure and significant life situations become the core of the program. Cooperative group planning, action, and evaluation are used to further group and individual needs. The program is envisioned as a series of on-going experiences related to needs and problems of children. All areas of the curriculum are drawn upon as needed to solve children's problems and to help them meet basic life situations. School and community projects (safety studies, beautification, gardening, clean-up, the school store) are undertaken. Instructional resources of all types are selected to meet specific needs of the group—audio-visual materials, textbooks, community resources, tools, construction materials, and the like. Goals are viewed in terms of growth in ability to meet life situations. Democratic behavior is stressed, and social concepts and understandings are developed in situations important to children. Evaluative procedures are related to each child's level of development and use is made of anecdotal records, cooperatively made checklists, and other informal devices as well as tests. Since well-rounded growth and development of children is uppermost in mind in all phases of the program, planning, guidance, and evaluation are based upon the studied needs and interests of children.

SEPARATE-SUBJECT VS. UNIFIED PROGRAMS

The question immediately arises whether unified programs are more efficient than separate-subject programs. Although more evidence is needed on recently developed programs, several studies have shown that unified programs are the more effective. Seagoe [2] studied two Grade VIII classes and found that the class using a unified approach in history and geography was superior in retention and initial learning to the class that used separate materials. Tyler's [3] study of unified social studies versus textbook teaching of geography and history showed that the fused approach yielded more learning of related spelling words. An experiment carried out by Collings [4] over twenty-five years ago showed that the children in a fused program were superior in interest, attitudes, and basic skills to children in a separated-subject-matter program. Oberholtzer [5] in a study of over two thousand pupils in Grades IV and V reported that students in a half-day fused program not only maintained subject skills but also learned more social skills than did children in one daily period of social studies and regular periods on the skills. Reports by Wrightstone [6] indicate that activity programs bring about improved social learning with no loss in learning of skills and information. Preston [7] in a summary of nineteen studies concluded that available evidence "consistently favors that organization in which the content is unified." It is the judgment of the writer that unified approaches as represented by the comprehensive social studies units and social living approaches are far superior to the other types of social studies programs. Attention is given next, therefore, to ways in which the scope of unified programs may be planned.

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[2] May V. Seagoe, "Qualitative Wholes: Classroom Experiments," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 27:612-620, November, 1936.

[3] K. I. Tyler, "Spelling as Secondary Learning," *Teachers College Contributions to Education*, No. 781. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939.

[4] Ellsworth Collings, *An Experiment With a Project Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923.

[5] E. E. Oberholtzer, "An Integrated Curriculum in Practice," *Teachers College Contributions to Education*, No. 694. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937.

[6] J. W. Wrightstone, "Evaluation of the Experiment with the Activity Program in the New York City Elementary Schools," *Journal of Educational Research*, 38:252-257, December, 1944.

[7] Ralph C. Preston, "An Appraisal of Fusion of Social Studies in the Elementary School," *Elementary School Journal*, 44:202-297, December, 1943.

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SCOPE OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Scope refers to the breadth, comprehensiveness, or the *what* of the program. How broad and inclusive should the program be? What aspects of human living are basic? What elements should be emphasized at each level? These are basic questions, because the scope of the program is a prime determiner of the type of experiences that will be developed with children. The scope of the well-planned social studies program is broad enough to acquaint children with the range of human activities that are meaningful to them. Careful selection should be made so that important aspects of living are not overlooked. The breadth of the program should provide for a variety of experiences so that the child's learning will be well-rounded and balanced. It should also be possible to draw upon other fields of learning so that significant problems can be considered in the light of their many ramifications; a narrow, compartmentalized program limits social learning. The program must be related to problems and situations that arise in daily living, or it will have little significance to children. The program should include aspects of living that can be considered at recurring levels of the child's development so that continuous growth of social understanding is assured. A broad, comprehensive social studies program that provides for continuity and balance is an essential feature of effective organization.

The scope, or breadth, of the social studies has been determined in several ways.[8] Some programs are limited by a basic textbook or series of textbooks, and attention is given to only those topics that appear in the textbooks. A few school systems have tried to determine scope by using lists of purposes or aims to establish the comprehensiveness of the program. The difficulty here lies in using a multiplicity of discrete, minute objectives;[9] such lists become too unwieldly to handle. In other programs scope has been determined in terms of broad themes or generalizations. Such an approach has all the weaknesses of any logically organized subject-matter approach and generally results in a verbalized procedure.[10] Another approach that has been used in a few places is the development study of cultures. Simple cultures are

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[8] For a good over-all discussion see I. James Quillen and Lavone A. Hanna, *Education for Social Competence*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman Company, 1948, pp. 69-106.

[9] H. L. Caswell and D. S. Campbell, *Curriculum Development*. New York: American Book Company, 1935, pp. 151-159.

[10] H. L. Caswell, *Education in the Elementary School*. New York: American Book Company, 1942, pp. 138-139.

studied first, followed by a consideration of more advanced cultures. Here again, this approach may be logical for scholars, but it does not seem to be meaningful to children and frequently results in the development of stereotypes and misconceptions.[11] Although the foregoing approaches are inadequate for defining the scope of the social studies, this fact does not mean that textbooks, purposes, generalizations, and studies of other cultures have no place in the program. They do, but other approaches for use in defining the scope of the program appear to be more satisfactory.

SOCIAL FUNCTIONS OR AREAS OF LIVING

Since social studies are concerned with human relationships, they should give attention to the major activities of men, women, and children as they interact with others and their physical environment to meet basic human needs. In many courses of study, therefore, the scope of the social studies is defined in terms of basic social functions, or areas of living, such as the following:

Production
Distribution
Transportation
Communication
Government
Education
Conservation
Aesthetic expression
Religious expression
Recreation

Each of the foregoing is a major activity in all types of culture. As used in defining the scope of the social studies, the social functions suggest major categories that are central in group living and around which both individual and group activities can be organized. Provision can be made for growth in understanding of the social functions throughout the child's school career. This does not mean that each social function should be taught as a unit, although this may be done at certain levels in such units as Transportation and Conservation. Rather, at each grade level and in each unit developed in the program, attention is given to the social functions.

The following outline of social functions from the San Francisco Teaching Guide is illustrative.[12] Six major functions (worded differently from those above) are elaborated and used to plan the breadth of the social studies. The outline below is followed by a list of sug-

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[11] *Ibid.*, pp. 135-137.

[12] Adapted from *Teaching Guide, Social Studies, Kindergarten through Grade Six*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 300. San Francisco: Public Schools, pp. 26-30.

gested applications at two grade levels to show how social functions may be used in planning units of work. As you read them, think of practical applications you may make in a unit you are planning.

Protecting Life and Health

1. Developing wholesome habits and attitudes for health, safety, recreation.
2. Utilizing health services in home, school, and community living.
3. Recognizing the contributions of science and the dangers of mechanized living to health and safety; noting changes due to new methods of transportation and communication.
4. Recognizing the interdependence of people and communities in matters of health; recognizing the role of the government in protecting life and health.

Conserving and Utilizing Resources

1. Conserving, controlling, and adjusting to geographic factors.
2. Utilizing inventions to improve production, transportation, and distribution of goods.
3. Improving existing natural resources through better conservation practices and wise utilization of resources.

Understanding the Relationship between the Individual and Government

1. Accepting individual responsibility, and securing, protecting and extending individual rights.
2. Providing for continuity; providing for needed changes.
3. Securing representation of interests; securing and utilizing leadership; making laws; delegating authority; maintaining checks and balances; securing maximum service.

Understanding the Role of Education

1. Educational opportunities in home, school, and community.
2. Recognizing the possibilities, limitations, and dangers of mass communication through radio, TV, press, and motion pictures.
3. Utilizing educational opportunities, contributions of research, and accumulated knowledge.

Providing for Aesthetic Expression

1. Maintaining and providing beauty in our homes, schools, communities, state, country, and other places.
2. Recognizing, utilizing, and appreciating aesthetic qualities in objects and persons; appreciating contributions of others; noting aesthetic factors in industry.
3. Participating in aesthetic enterprises and developing aesthetic forms of personal expression.

Providing for Religious Expression

1. Maintaining freedom of worship, friendly relations with others, and respect for other religious groups.
2. Recognizing the importance of moral and spiritual values in daily living, the significance of religious holidays, and the influence of religion on great leaders.
3. Participating in altruistic activities, religious activities, and service-welfare activities.

The social functions must be applied specifically as plans are made for a given group of children in a particular community. The following example [13] illustrates such an application in Grade I in which Home and School are emphasized.

Protecting Life in Home and School

1. How mothers, fathers, doctors, and nurses provide for health, safety, and recreation.
2. What children can do at home, school, and in the community to promote health and safety; proper care of pets, gardens, plants, aquaria.
3. Health and safety in the classroom, cafeteria, playground, neighborhood; meeting emergencies such as fire, injury, illness, or being lost.

Conserving and Utilizing the Physical Environment of Home and School

1. Kinds of homes, use of materials in homes, heat and light in homes.
2. How birds, animals, insects and plants live; how to protect them.
3. How food is secured; how clothing is secured from wool, cotton, and other materials; making and conserving clothing at home by sewing, knitting, darning; using devices such as refrigerators, telephones, radios to improve living in our homes; transportation by means of bus, car, streetcar, airplane.

Understanding the Relationship between the Individual and Government

1. Responsibilities of members of the family.
2. How our school is operated; responsibilities of children, teachers, others; making and following rules together.
3. Honoring our country and our flag; recognizing our national anthem.

Understanding the Role of Education in Home and School

1. Why we come to school; how home and school work together; how to use school services; how to be helpful at school.
2. How we can improve our work; how to show regard for others.

[13] *Ibid.*, pp. 76-69.

3. How older children help at school through service as monitors, assistance on playground, in the lunchroom, and in school activities.

Providing for Religious Expression in the Home and School

1. How we can help one another; how we decide what to do; how we decide what is true.
2. How we bring happiness to members of our family and to others; how we express gratitude for love and security.
3. How members of the family express joys and sorrows; how courage and self-confidence are needed by everyone.

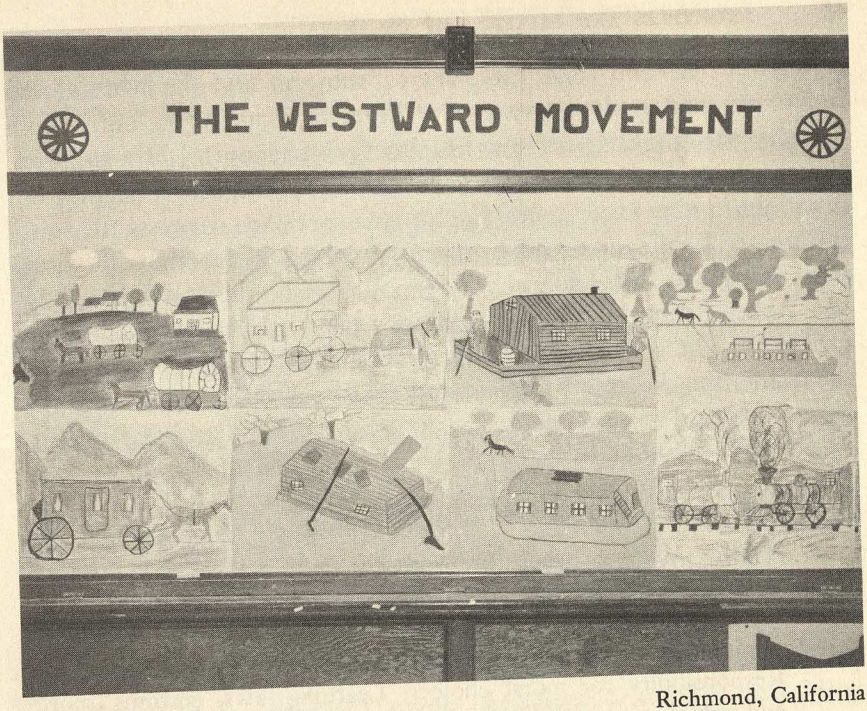
Providing for Aesthetic Expression in the Home and School

1. How we keep our room, our school, and our home beautiful.
2. How pictures, pottery, music, stories, poems, dances make us happier at home and school.
3. How we find beauty in daily life, flowers, birds, seasons, people, and our work.

Another example may help to clarify the use of social functions in unit planning. Included in the following outline are categories slightly different from those in the San Francisco program. In it are shown some of the possibilities for developing insight into the social functions in a unit on Pioneer Life developed for children in the middle grades.[14]

1. *Production and Consumption:* of goods and services—clothing, spinning, tanning hides; food, planting, hunting, trapping; homes, log cabins, sod houses, dugouts, lean-tos, stockades, forts; use of guns and ammunition; preserving food by drying, salting; soap making and candle making; making furniture.
2. *Transportation and Distribution:* by means of canoes, riverboats, carts, wagons, horses, mules, oxen.
3. *Communication:* by word of mouth, smoke signals, letters, and news carried by freighters, scouts, and explorers.
4. *Education:* by parents teaching their children at home, schools in some places, school and church sometimes in same building; emphasis on the Bible and the three R's.
5. *Conservation:* building of homes for self-protection; use of skins; securing food, clothing, and shelter from the environment; poor sanitation, contaminated water; wastage of forests and animals.
6. *Government:* law and order established by the group; cooperation in order to survive; individual independence for protection; severe punishment for violators of the rules.

[14] J. U. Michaelis, *Pioneer Life*. Berkeley: Associated Students Book Store, University of California, 1951.



Richmond, California

Understanding of transportation as a basic social function is being extended here in a unit on the Westward Movement. In what ways might you include experiences related to transportation and other social functions in a unit you are planning?

7. *Religious Expression:* life revolved around religious beliefs; Sunday a day of complete rest; circuit riders and camp meetings.
8. *Aesthetic Expression:* poems and stories of early American life; folk songs, folk dances, art, and music of early American period.
9. *Recreation:* quilting parties, husking bees, sewing bees, log-rolling, barn raising, camp meetings, church affairs.

LIFE SITUATIONS

One new and promising approach must be considered—the life situations approach. For a more detailed analysis, the reader is urged to consult the original reference.[15] The fundamental assumption of this approach is that vital learning experiences are to be found in the persistent life situations encountered by children.

Significant life situations are those encountered by children in everyday living. Many of these situations are recurring and persistent

[15] F. B. Stratemeyer, H. L. Forkner, and M. G. McKim, *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947.

throughout life and "take the place of 'subjects' and the other varied foci of curriculum development." [16] Thus the scope of the curriculum is within the range of persistent life situations encountered by children, and sequence develops as the learner matures and meets recurring life situations in new experiences. Each new experience suggests the starting point of guidance, and problems involved in meeting life situations suggest the direction in which guidance should be given.

A brief summary of life situations may help to clarify this approach. [17] The source of persistent life situations is in experiences in the home, the community, civic and social activities, work activities, and leisure and spiritual activities. These have been grouped in three broad categories.

1. *Situations calling for growth in individual capacities.*
   a. Health: Meeting needs for food, air, light, rest, activity; finding security and emotional adjustment; caring for illness and injuries.
   b. Intellectual power: Effective use of speaking, listening, writing, reading, and problem solving, and number skills and concepts.
   c. Responsibility for moral choices: Learning laws, customs, mores, and values; respecting rights of others.
   d. Aesthetic expression and appreciation: Creativity and taste in personal grooming, living conditions, community planning, leisure activities.

2. *Situations calling for growth in social participation.*
   a. Person-to-person relationships: Effective relations with family, friends, co-workers, others.
   b. Group memberships: Deciding when to join and how to participate; being an effective member, a leader, a follower.
   c. Intergroup relations: Working with other groups; safeguarding rights of minorities; supporting worthy causes and drives.

3. *Situations calling for growth in ability to deal with environmental factors and forces.*
   a. Natural phenomena: Adapting to weather, air, moisture, sunlight; using plant and animal life; conserving resources; using physical and chemical forces for human welfare.
   b. Technological resources: Using tools, appliances, machines, communication and transportation facilities; safety and conservation.
   c. Economic-social-political structures and forces: Earning a living; buying and selling goods and services; participating in government;

[16] *Ibid.*, p. 74.
[17] Adapted from *ibid.*, pp. 106-289.

supporting education; improving laws; conserving and improving family life.

The foregoing persistent life situations arise in everyday living of children and adults. The everyday situations in which they arise will, of course, vary for each individual. The exact time, place, and nature of the everyday situation cannot be anticipated precisely. The teacher can become acquainted with the examples and thereby be more able to identify everyday situations in the lives of children, and to use them in the school program.

The social studies, dealing as they do with human relationships, can make many contributions to the development of the abilities needed to meet life situations as they arise. For example, in a unit on The Community, the following examples related to health and intellectual power show a few of the life situations which may be included:

1. *Health.* Meeting health needs in the home, school, and community; how different people help; what boys and girls can do; problems of safety; sanitation; garbage collection; water supply; pasteurization of milk; hospitals in the community; role doctors and nurses play; working and playing with others safely; security through developing friendships and being friendly.

2. *Intellectual Power.* Working together to solve problems; discussing community problems and experiences in the community; observing housing construction; visiting places in the community to secure ideas for group work; planning community surveys of safety and health conditions.

Other categories can be analyzed in a similar manner. Of course, other areas of the curriculum also make contributions to the development of the competencies needed to deal with life situations.

The writer recommends that those at work on the improvement of social studies programs consider the scope of the program in the light of life situations. In one study of three representative units in the social studies it was found that certain basic life situations were inadvertently neglected.[18] If the builders of the units had checked them against the list of life situations, they could have rounded out the units and given them balance and comprehensiveness without undue difficulty.

In addition to suggesting types of situations of significance in the social studies and other areas of the curriculum, this approach highlights the numerous situations in home, school, and community that

[18] L. T. Miles, *Persistent Life Situation Included in Selected Social Studies Units* (Unpublished Seminar Study). Berkeley: University of California School of Education, 1949.

provide opportunities for rich social learning. These opportunities should not be overlooked because, from the child's point of view, they are vital experiences. As such they should be used for developing increasingly higher levels of democratic behavior.

SEQUENCE OF UNITS

In the social studies the sequence of units typically begins with the child's immediate environment and moves outward to places and peoples removed in time and space. In most programs specific units are suggested to guide the teacher in selecting units for a given grade, prevent overlapping and duplication, establish continuity in the program, and provide a basis for selecting instructional materials. Efforts are made to capitalize upon resources and conditions in the community and to draw upon children's needs and interests as they mature. Continuity of learning is stressed so that attitudes, understandings, and other basic learnings will emerge gradually and steadily throughout the program. Relationships between experiences at various levels are interwoven with experiences in the child's daily living.

Several practices and trends should be noted as the sample programs in this section are reviewed: [19]

1. The sequence of units is far more uniform in the primary grades than in the middle or upper grades.
2. Some school systems are giving emphasis to community living in the upper grades as well as in the primary grades in order to develop clearer insight into relationships between problems of living at the local level and the state-national level. For example, state and national government are better understood when children see relationships to local government.
3. The child's home state is being given greater emphasis in some programs with attention to relationships to community living and to the development of the United States.
4. Units and content from science are being viewed as a basic part of social living in some programs.
5. Similarities as well as contrasts and comparisons of ways of living in different lands are emphasized with frequent reference to the child's own environment.
6. The principle of widening horizons—moving from home and

[19] For a more detailed review of these or other programs, the reader should secure the social studies guide from the school system in question.

Oakland

Units on the Home and Family are recommended for Grade I in most curriculum guides. Check a local or state guide and note the units recommended at various grade levels.

community outward to other times and places—is characteristic of most programs.

7. Optional units are suggested in some instances, thus allowing flexibility in meeting needs and interests of children in a particular community.

8. Recurring emphases, such as holidays and special events, are suggested for each grade in some programs.

CALIFORNIA

Kindergarten and Grade I. Home, School, Immediate Neighborhood.

Grade II. Community Life. City Community, Farm, Wholesale Market, Dairy Farm, Bakery.

Grade III. Modern Community. Police and Fire Departments, Health and Safety, Transportation, Communication, Education, Business and Industry, Religion, Historical Background of Local Community, Life in a Primitive Community (optional).

Grade IV. Early California, Modern California. Optional content: China, Japan, Islands of the Pacific.

Grade V. The United States. Colonial Life on the Eastern Seaboard, the Westward Movement and Pioneer Life.

Grade VI. The Western Hemisphere. Life Study of Mexico, Canada, Other American Republics, Transportation (emphasis upon aviation), Communication (emphasis upon history of records).

Grade VII. The Eastern Hemisphere. Middle East, Egypt, Greece, Rome, and Western Europe (emphasis upon contributions); Far East, Australia, Islands of the Pacific (emphasis upon contrasts); Modern Community Life; Conservation of Natural Resources.

Grade VIII. United States History, Geography, Civics. Growth of American Democracy, the Constitution, Effects of Industrial Revolution, Relationships with Other Nations, Influence of Great Americans and Documents, Significance of Geographical Features.

PENNSYLVANIA

Grade I. Home and School. Our Homes and How We Live in Them, How We Go To and From School and What We See on the Way, How We Enjoy our Pets, Our School and How We Live in It, Holidays and Special Days.

Grade II. Our Community. Workers in Our Community, Roads Out of Our Community and What We See There, How Our Farm Neighbors Help Others, Holidays and Special Days.

Grade III. Broader Community. The Everyday Things About Us (emphasis upon science), Where the People in Our Community Work and What They Do, How People Learn What Other People Are Doing and Thinking (communication), How Man Uses Water and How It Affects Him, The Indians Who Lived Here Before Us, Holidays and Special Days.

Grade IV. Our Community as Part of State, Nation, World. How People Live and Work in Our County, How People Live and Work In Our State, How Plants and Animals Help or Harm Each Other, How People Live and Work in Other Lands (Fisherman in Northern Lands, Netherlands, Switzerland, Mediterranean Lands, Hot Rainy Lands, Australia, Desert Peoples, Explorers in Polar Lands), Holidays and Special Days.

Grade V. United States. Great Inventions that Have Helped Our Country Grow, How Trade and Travel Lead to Discovery and Exploration, The Northeastern Part of Our Country, The New South, The Agricultural Interior, Western States, Parts of Our Nation That May Sometime Become States, Our Common Interests With Canada, Holidays and Special Days.

Grade VI. Latin America. Our Nearest Neighbors to the South (Mexico, Central America, Caribbean Lands; West Indies, Venezuela, The

Guianas, Colombia, Andean Countries; Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chile, Plata River Countries; Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, Our Largest Southern Neighbor–Brazil), Transportation in the Americas, Growth of American Institutions (in both North and South America), Holidays and Special Days.

NEW YORK STATE

Kindergarten, Grades I and II. Neighborhood Studies. Living in Home and School, Living in the Neighborhood, Living on the Farm, Holidays.

Grades III and IV. Studies of Communities. Ways of Living in Our Community Today, Ways of Living in Our Community in Early Days, Ways of Living in Our Community in Indian Times, Ways of Living in Other Parts of the World, Holidays.

Grades V and VI. Regional Studies. United States, Canada, Mexico, Europe, South America, Africa, and Asia (comparison with regions in U.S.), Holidays, Famous People.

Grades VII and VIII. Community Life, Our American Heritage.

CINCINNATI

Kindergarten. Home and School Living. A Playhouse, School Helpers, Lunch at School, Neighborhood Friends, Away We Go, Animal Babies, Summer Fun, Holidays and Festivals, Community and School Enterprises. (The last three are recurring emphases in following grades.)

Grade I. Home, School, Neighborhood. Home and Family, Living at School, Neighborhood Helpers (Policeman, Fireman, Storekeeper, Helpers Who Come to Our House), the Farm, Things that Go on Land.

Grade II. Community Living. Workers (Librarian, Post Office Worker, Health Worker, Social Worker, Carpenter, Construction and Maintenance, Street Cleaner, Others), Our Food (Market and Store, Dairy and Bakery, Garden and Greenhouse), Air Travel, the Circus.

Grade III. Broader Community Living. The Local Community (as a part of Cincinnati), Where Our Food Comes From, Clothing, Man's Dwellings, Communication, Boats and Harbors, American Indians, The Zoo, Good Americans.

Grade IV. Ways of Living in Many Lands. Orientation Unit, How We Travel Today, China, Mexico, Switzerland, The Congo, Holland, The Far North, The Sahara.

Grade V. The U.S., Today and Yesterday. Orientation Unit on Food for Cincinnati or Places I Know in the U.S., Finding the New World, Eastern United States, The Ohio Valley, The South (or Clothes We Wear as optional unit), Our Great West.

Grade VI. Europe Today and How It Came to Be. Life in Prehis-

toric Times, Mediterranean Lands, Central Europe (Middle Ages, and One Country Today, such as France), British Isles, U.S.S.R.

DENVER

Kindergarten. Social Living.

Grade I. Living In Our School, Family, Pets, Other Places (We Have Been, Friends Have Been, etc.), Living Things, Out of Doors, Toys (optional).

Grade II. Our Community, Communication In Everyday Living, The World Through Our Five Senses, Water (optional).

Grade III. Living in Denver, Money, Learning About Plants, Animals Near and Far.

Grade IV. Ways of Living—Then and Now, Physical Forces That Work for Man, Transportation, The Earth—How It Was Formed and How It Changes (optional), Ancient Plants and Animals (optional).

Grade V. How Our Country Began, United States Today, How Chemical Changes Affect Our Everyday Living.

Grade VI. World Geography and People of the Western Hemisphere, Communication, Astronomy, Preparing For Junior High School.

Grade VII. Patterns of Culture. How Did Early Man Develop? What Were Some of the Contributions of Past Civilizations? What Contributions Were Made by People Who Lived in Europe During the Middle Ages? How Do People of the Eastern Hemisphere Live Today?

Grade VIII. Our Heritage. How Did Europeans Discover and Explore a New World? Why Did People from Different Lands Come to America? How Did the Colonies Achieve Independence from Britain? How Did the New Nation Form a Union? How Did Democracy and Patriotism Develop in the 1800's? How Did the United States Acquire and Settle the Great West? How Did Internal Conflict Help to Confirm the Union? How Did Industrial Expansion Effect Changes in Living in the United States? What Is the Role of the United States in Today's Interdependent World? (optional)

LOS ANGELES COUNTY, CALIFORNIA

Kindergarten. How We Live and Work Together. How We Live Together at Home, How We Work Together at School, What Our Neighborhood Is Like, Workers Who Help Us at Home, at School, and in the Neighborhood.

Grade I. How Home, School, and Neighborhood Help Us Meet Our Needs. How the School Helps Meet Needs, How the Family Helps Meet Needs, What Our Neighborhood is Like, How Workers in Our Neighborhood Help Us Meet Our Needs.

Grade II. How People Live and Work in Our Neighborhood. How People Live in Our Neighborhood, How People Provide for Their Needs for Food, Clothing, Shelter; How People Meet Their Health and Safety Needs.

Grade III. How People in Communities Depend upon One Another. How People Work Together to Provide Services, What Our Community Is Like, How Our Community Is Related to Other Communities, What Makes for Good Living in Our Community.

Grade IV. How People Live in California. How Ways of Living Differ in Various California Communities, How People in California Produce, Process, and Distribute Goods, How Life in California Continues to Change. What Our State Is Like Today.

Grade V. How People Live in Our Country. Why People Are Moving to Our Region, How the Movement of People in Our Country Began, How Our Country Was Discovered and Settled, What Our Country Is Like Today.

Grade VI. How People Live in the Western Hemisphere. How Certain Countries in the Western Hemisphere Developed, How All Countries in the Western Hemisphere Are Interrelated, How the Western Hemisphere Is Related to the World, How Our Country is Associated with Its Immediate Neighbors.

Grade VII. How People Live in the Eastern Hemisphere. What the Eastern Hemisphere Is Like, How Life in Certain Countries of the Eastern Hemisphere Compares with Life in Our Country, How All Countries of the World are Interrelated.

Grade VIII. How Our Country Fosters the Democratic Way of Life. How People Meet Their Needs through Participating in Groups, How Our Government Reflects Our Democratic Values, How Our American Heritage Continues to Grow, How Our Ways of Governing Compare with Other Ways of Governing.

LEGAL PROVISIONS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

There are many legal requirements in the various states related to the educational program. This has been true from early times because of the keen interest of the citizenry in education. Many of these requirements have a direct bearing upon the social studies program. For example, most states have specific legal provisions regarding instruction in civics, history, the Constitution, observance of special holidays, display of the flag, patriotism, and similar matters directly related to the social studies. Some states have provisions relating to geography, celebrations, special events, content of textbooks, time allotments, loyalty oaths, and the like. All in all, forty-four states re-

quire (elementary school) instruction in the Constitution; thirty-four require instruction in United States history; thirty-four require instruction in the state constitution; and twenty-eight require instruction in state history.[20] In addition to state requirements are the regulations of state and local school departments. Many of these extend and implement state laws.

What type of legal requirements should be placed in the laws of a state? In general, it is sound procedure to leave specific, detailed prescriptions out of state laws. Requirements that refer to time allotments, methods, grade placement, and the like should be left to school authorities. There is nothing wrong, however, with legal provisions that emphasize objectives such as loyalty to democratic ideals, understanding the Constitution, and appreciation of United States history. But provisions that go beyond a statement of objectives should not be established in law, since it is the professional responsibility of school workers to select ways and means of achieving objectives. In any event the teacher's responsibility is to carry out the intent and purpose of such regulations to the best of his ability. A careful check should be made of existing provisions; these may be found in the school code, summaries of provisions published by state departments of education, in curriculum guides, or in the school register of enrollment and attendance. Specific suggestions for meeting existing requirements should be included in each curriculum guide. If any provisions are detrimental to the development of an adequate school program, they should be called to the attention of the proper authorities so that appropriate changes may be made.

DEVELOPING AN EFFECTIVE PROGRAM

Let us now consider basic principles that have been used in setting up social studies programs, bearing in mind that no program should be viewed as a static, unchanging entity. Outstanding programs can remain so only if teachers and other school workers engage in cooperative efforts to change them in accordance with children's needs, newer developments in education, and changing conditions in the community.

An over-all framework or pattern of organization is needed to guide the selection of learning experiences. Past experience has indicated that the unplanned curriculum is wasteful of both the teacher's

[20] The material in this section is adapted from Ward W. Keesecker, *Education for Freedom*, Bulletin No. 11. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1948.

and the children's time and energy. At the other extreme is the rigidly planned program which leads to the neglect of children's needs and failure to adapt to community conditions. A desirable situation appears to be one in which a framework is set up and teachers select units within the framework, making adaptations to meet children's problems and needs as they arise. Such a pattern of organization should be developed in accordance with the following basic principles:

The social studies program should be based upon a cooperatively developed point of view. The teacher's values and beliefs actually determine the kind and quality of experience that will be developed with children. For example, if the teachers in a given school system believe in the development of rich experiences through units, the program will probably be developed accordingly. If the teachers do not believe in the use of the unit system, the best pattern of unit organization that can be developed will not bring about the kind of program desired by the curriculum builders. The teachers themselves, therefore, must share in designing the program and revising it in the light of newer developments and needed changes. They must have opportunities to participate in developing the point of view essential to effective utilization of the framework. In developing a point of view, attention should be given to democratic values, child growth and development, and cultural changes. The unique goals of the social studies should be defined and the pattern of organization should be designed to achieve the goals. Changes in the curriculum can result only if there are changes in the behavior of teachers.[21]

The actual plan or organization—the framework—should be developed cooperatively by school workers in consultation with resource experts. Working as a group with consultants, it is possible to design a program that is understood, accepted, and geared to the developmental needs and characteristics of children in a democratic society. The pooling of ideas and sharing of points of view lead to the design of a more workable framework.

In sharp contrast is the individualistic approach, with each teacher working alone, which results in a hodgepodge of experiences for children. In such laissez-faire programs continuity is lacking, repetition and duplication abound, and growth in a consistent manner is neglected. Cooperative group planning is the best way to achieve an effective social studies program.

The program should be related to community living. The child's

[21] George Sharp, *Curriculum Development as Re-Education of the Teacher.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952.

community is a vital laboratory of learning. Out of the experiences which children have in their communities come the meanings and concepts that enable them to explore an ever-widening environment. The customs, mores, and values of the community condition the program. Community needs and problems of significance to children become an important part of the curriculum; examples are safety, recreation, transportation, health, industries, and conservation. Changing conditions in the community call for changes in the program. Instructional resources found in the community can be used to enrich social learning. The work of other agencies in the community must also be recognized and related to school experiences when necessary. Ideally, the school-community program of living and learning should move along smoothly and cooperatively, with planning broadly based so that mutual understanding exists regarding basic responsibilities for the development of children.

The scope or range of learnings in the social studies program should:

(1) Be comprehensive—provide for social learning as broad as the range of human experiences that are meaningful to children.

(2) Be balanced—various aspects of human relationships should be treated in a balanced manner.

(3) Relate to daily living—provide opportunities to meet children's needs and problems in school, community, and the ever-widening environment.

(4) Promote continuity of learning—provide for recurring emphases as the child grows and develops.

(5) Draw upon other fields—enable the teacher or group to use content from any field in order to engage in effective problem solving in the social studies.

A good framework provides for continuity of learning. Basic concepts, attitudes, problem-solving skills, and other social learnings are broadened and deepened each year as the child grows and develops. Developing strands of meaning should run through the program from the first experiences in school to the last. Each unit selected for a given group should be related to preceding ones and lead to other rich experiences. Through group planning as the unit develops in the classroom, sequences within each separate unit can be developed. This is a basic point because the curriculum actually becomes a dynamic reality as experiences are developed in the classroom with children. It is only when content and materials are understood and used by

children in situations that are meaningful to them that real learning takes place. Psychologically, continuity of experience develops within the child as he relates one experience to the next and uses concepts learned in one situation to meet other situations. Steps must be taken to guide children to build strands of meaning that grow as new experiences are developed. This can be accomplished only if the teacher uses effective group processes, techniques to meet individual needs as well as a variety of resources and evaluative devices, and understands the growth and development of children. The pattern of organization should contribute to continuity of learning, not detract from it.

In planning and evaluating the sequence of a given program, questions such as the following should be raised:

1. Is the sequence related to the maturity of children at various levels and to their past experiences?
2. Do the suggested experiences at each level lead on to broader and deeper experiences? Do they promote continuity of learning?
3. Does the sequence permit adaptations to community conditions and to the needs of children?
4. Are suggested units feasible and practical in terms of children's needs, teachers' backgrounds, and available instructional resources?

Latitude should be left in the pattern of organization for cooperative group planning under teacher guidance. Detailed prescriptions which prevent group planning should not be included in the framework. This is essential because the needs and characteristics of individuals and groups vary from class to class. Furthermore, many vital social learnings grow out of group planning. The teacher working with a given group is in a position to develop the experiences suggested in the framework. Freedom to do this, so that individual and group needs can be met, is an essential element in the design of the program.

The experiences and subject-matter content in the framework should be those which are essential in democratic living. Provision should be made for the development of an understanding of democratic values and processes as the developing child experiences them in daily living in home, school, community, and his ever-widening environment. Group processes involving cooperative problem solving should be inherent in each suggested unit so that democratic planning, group action, and evaluation are developed to increasingly higher levels of effectiveness. Life situations confronting children as they

interact with their social and physical environment must be included. The value of the framework can be measured in terms of the extent to which it serves as a helpful guideline for teachers to use in the development of democratic behavior; the proposed experiences and content must reflect this basic consideration.

The experiences and content most useful for developing democratic citizenship should be selected from the rich heritage of experience that has been developed by man. The old idea that any content will do so long as children are happily at work overlooks the dynamic changes taking place in our society, dodges the reality of community conditions, and neglects the situations that are vital in democratic living. Content must be selected which bears upon the vital, significant problems defined in the framework and considered in cooperative group planning. Content selected and used with a given group should:

1. Be understandable, interesting, and significant to the group.
2. Be used in the group's work upon significant problems.
3. Lead to the development of basic concepts of importance in many situations.
4. Be useful in school and community experiences.
5. Be drawn from any area so long as it is needed in the solution of significant problems.
6. Contribute to increasing effectiveness in problem solving.

The experiences, content, and materials needed to develop the program should be organized as units. By *unit* is meant a series of suggestive experiences, content, and materials related to a particular topic and designed to develop understandings, attitudes, skills, and appreciations. The use of units appears to be the most effective way to organize and develop learning experiences for children. Problems of significance to children should be included together with the related activities and materials needed to solve them. Content from different fields of learning can be drawn upon and related to each problem. The sequence of units can be paced to the level of maturity of children. The teacher can draw upon the proposed units and make adaptations to the needs of the group, thus assuring flexibility of use. New materials are easily incorporated. Revisions can and should be made in the light of evaluation by the teachers and their groups.

The organization of the program should be flexible and subject to revision. It is essential that flexibility be provided so that teachers can make adaptations to the needs of children. New developments in education and changes in community conditions should be reflected

in the program as they arise. Experimentation should be carried out to appraise the value of new proposals, and to determine whether they should be incorporated in the program. Systematic attention should be given to continuous revision so that the program can be kept up-to-date.

The pattern of organization should be designed with reference to the developmental growth characteristics and needs of children. The content, experiences, and materials needed for units at each level should be appropriate for children at that level. Each unit should be related to the past experiences of children. Vital life situations should be discovered and included in the program. The timing of experiences should be attuned to the group's readiness for social experiences so that rich social learning is possible. Important, too, are individual abilities and interests, which need attention in all phases of planning, from the designing of the program through the development of experiences in the classroom. Emphasis upon group needs and processes should not lead to a neglect of the individual, since any program that is to be effective must recognize the importance of both individual and group needs. Because of the importance of relating child growth characteristics to the social studies program, organization and development, the next chapter is devoted to child development and related implications.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Discuss advantages and disadvantages of the various types of programs presented in the first part of this chapter. How might a group of school workers move from one type to another, i.e., from textbook or separate-subject type to comprehensive units or social living? What materials, professional advice, and types of meetings and conferences would be necessary?
2. Discuss the various ways in which the scope of the social studies may be defined. Which do you believe to be the most functional in your situation? Give reasons for your choice.
3. Discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the sample programs presented in this chapter to illustrate sequences of units. Which do you prefer? Give reasons for your choice. Are there modifications or changes that you believe should be made in them?
4. Obtain a local or state curriculum guide and check it for the following:
   a. What type of social studies program is recommended—separate subject, comprehensive units, etc.?

b. How is the scope of the social studies defined?
c. In what ways is the sequence of units similar to those presented in this chapter? How is it different?
d. Are legal provisions clearly outlined and met? (If not, determine what they are by checking the attendance register or other available source.)
e. What suggestions are made for observance of holidays, special events, and special weeks?

5. Review a unit of work of your choice in terms of the social functions presented in this chapter. Outline specific ways in which the unit may contribute to an understanding of the social functions. Check your outline with others who are interested in the same, or a related, unit of work.

6. Outline ways in which the life situations presented in this chapter may be made a part of a unit work of your choice. Check your outline with others.

7. Outline ways in which other areas of the curriculum may be drawn upon and used in a unit of work you are planning to teach. Refer to the sample units in the Appendix for suggestions.

8. Discuss the principles presented at the end of this chapter regarding the development of an effective pattern of organization. Which do you feel are most frequently neglected? Which are most difficult to use? In what ways can you as a teacher work to develop an effective pattern or framework?

REFERENCES

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procedures, and issues, along with examples of improvement programs carried out in school systems.

Harap, Henry, *Social Living in the Curriculum.* Nashville: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1952. A description and critique of social living programs in different sections of the country.

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Moffatt, M. P., and H. W. Howell, *Elementary Social Studies Instruction.* New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1952. Types of program organization are presented in Chap. II; developments in the social studies and elementary curriculum are summarized.

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Preston, Ralph, *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School.* New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1950. Curriculum organization is discussed in Chap. IV; illustrative programs are presented.

Wesley, E. B., and M. A. Adams, *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1952. Trends in organizing the social studies are presented in Chap. III; specimen programs are presented in Chap. IV.

Willcockson, Mary, *Social Education for Young Children* (Revised). Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1952. The planning and developing of social studies experiences in the primary grades are discussed in detail; good section on holiday observances.

3

CHILD DEVELOPMENT AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A significant phase of educational planning is that of relating learning in various areas of the curriculum to the growth and development of children. This aspect of educational planning has been given great impetus during the past few years and is currently reflected in courses of study, in yearbooks, and in the writings of educational authorities.[1] The primary purpose of this movement has been to develop programs of instruction that are geared to the developmental characteristics and needs of children, and that contribute maximally to the wholesome growth and development of each child.

DEVELOPMENTAL GROWTH CHARACTERISTICS

Child growth characteristics may be used as a frame of reference for studying a given group and individuals within the group. Since each child has his own growth pattern, emphasis must be given to specific study of each individual, and not exclusively to general principles of development. Definite sequences of growth, such as talking, reading, and writing may be expected, but rate of growth will vary for different individuals since each child has his own developmental pattern. No specific ages can be given for the emergence of certain characteristics in children. Averages or norms are meaningful only as they are used to study individual variations and to interpret the behavior of children in a given situation.

There are some dangers in enumerating growth characteristics

[1] For example, see A. T. Jersild and Associates, *Child Development and the Curriculum.* New York: Teachers College, 1946; and Ruth Ellsworth, "Contributions from Recent Research about Children and Society Which the Schools Can Use," *Social Studies for Older Children,* Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, National Education Association, 1953, pp. 34-44.

which should be considered. First of all, each child has his own developmental pattern and there is real danger that individual differences will be neglected. A second pitfall is viewing each level as a separate stage of development instead of recognizing that growth is continuous and gradual. The selected growth characteristics described in the following section overlap, and the rates at which different children develop them vary considerably. Thirdly, it must be recognized that research information about child development is incomplete and that available knowledge is suggestive, not definitive, in its implications. Fourthly, the children within a given class must be studied by the teacher to determine the levels of development in the class and to enable him to design learning experiences in accord with them. The assumption that the individuals in a given group fit a general pattern should never be made.

With these cautions in mind, attention is next turned to selected growth characteristics of children and specific implications for the social studies program. Major consideration is given to the characteristics of children between the ages of five and thirteen. Specific implications are made in terms of primary, intermediate, and upper grade levels. Obviously, because of individual differences, much overlapping does exist, and this fact should be recognized as this statement is read. In order to round out the discussion, a brief introductory statement on the preschool child has been included.

SELECTED GROWTH CHARACTERISTICS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Before entering school, the child develops in a variety of ways as a result of experiences in his home and neighborhood. He acquires many physical skills, such as walking, running, jumping, and handling objects and materials. He learns how to feed himself, to dress himself, to use simple tools such as a hammer or scissors, and to make simple objects to use in play. Hand preference becomes marked between three and five years and many children resist attempts to change handedness on entering school.

Language and mental development show marked changes during the preschool years.[2] From a beginning characterized by random gestures and vocalization, the child learns to use sentences of three or

[2] Dorothea McCarthy, "Language Development in Children," *Manual of Child Psychology*, 2nd ed. (Leonard Carmichael, Ed.). New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1954, pp. 492-630.

Berkeley

How can an experience such as this be used to help children meet developmental tasks? Can you think of other social experiences that might be used?

four words by age three, and six to eight words by age eight. He possesses a speaking vocabulary of around 2500 words [3] on entering school, and a larger understanding vocabulary.[4]

Social and emotional development are greatly affected by home conditions.[5] Patterns of behavior learned in the home and neighborhood may be expected to appear in school. Negativism and resistance to adult suggestions typically pass a peak at approximately two and a half to three years of age, and a desire to get along with others begins to emerge. Emotions are expressed in crying, pouting, temper tantrums, withdrawing, and the like; they occur in response to both words and situations. Make-believe play is a major activity. Identification of self with a group is beginning and play is in process of

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[3] Madorah E. Smith, "An Investigation of the Development of the Sentence and the Extent of Vocabulary in Young Children," *University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare*, No. 5, 1926.

[4] Mary K. Smith, "Measurement of the Size of General English Vocabulary through Elementary Grades and High School," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 24:311-345, 1941.

[5] For a thorough analysis, see J. H. S. Bossard, *The Sociology of Child Development*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954, pp. 161-314.

moving from a self-centered to a social basis. Friendships and the beginning of first-level cooperation are in evidence in parallel play.

Preschool children also face certain developmental tasks[6]—demands or requirements set by society in general and by the home in particular. These tasks may be referred to as special problems or learning activities which each child should meet successfully if he is to achieve wholesome adjustment. Thus preschool children are expected to learn to walk, eat, talk, control bodily wastes, and recognize sex differences and sexual modesty. They are also expected to make a fairly good adjustment to members of the family and to age mates, learn differences between right and wrong in everyday situations, and form simple concepts of objects and persons in their immediate environment. Progress toward the meeting of tasks such as the foregoing varies widely among children in a given group. Individual differences must be expected and accommodated as children enter school.

PRIMARY LEVEL

During their first experiences in school, children are eager to move around, to explore their environment, to engage in physical activity, to handle objects and materials, and to engage in individual and small group activities.[7] Primary school children are curious about things in the immediate environment and like to hear, see, smell, taste, and touch them. They explore the neighborhood and community with keen interest as they mature and gain increasing independence. Their hands seem to "get into everything," and they spend seemingly limitless energy in continuous physical activity, dramatic play, bodily movement, talking, experimenting, and making simple objects. At first such activities are carried on as ends in themselves; later, they are carried on to achieve purposes set up by the group.

Physical growth is slower than in the preschool period but plays a large role in the child's development.[8] The small muscles in hands and fingers are not so fully developed as the large muscles of the

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[6] Caroline Tryon and J. W. Lilienthal III, "Developmental Tasks," *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1950, pp. 77-128; and R. J. Havighurst, *Developmental Tasks and Education* (2nd ed.). New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1952.

[7] Committee of the Framework for the Social Studies, California School Supervisors Association, *Report to the Members of the Association*, October, 1943.

[8] See Helen Thompson, "Physical Growth," *Manual of Child Psychology*, 2nd ed. (Leonard Carmichael, Ed.). New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1954, pp. 292-334.

arms and legs. Fine and detailed writing, drawing, sewing, and construction are difficult and should not be used in the social studies as eye-hand coordination is not highly developed. Most children are far-sighted until they are around eight years of age, and should not read fine print or engage in activities requiring close vision.

The attention span of children entering school is relatively short, varying with interest and ability. At first their interests center in immediate ends, the here and now, and in matters related directly to their own problems; as they mature, their interests expand beyond the immediate environment to include the broader community and the problems of others. They ask many questions about the things around them with *what* questions being most frequent, and the number of *why* and *how* questions involving causal relations increasing as they gain in experience.[9] Concepts of time and space are undeveloped and they are unable to grasp ideas that are far removed from their environment, or are abstract in nature.[10] Some confusions and misconceptions are likely to arise regarding various aspects of home and community life, possessions of others, when and how events took place, and the meaning and applications of group standards; these will decrease as children gain in experience and as attention is given to them in the school program. Make-believe is evident in play, in tales told in class, and in discussion. Reasoning ability is present and manifests itself in questions, comments, play, manipulation of materials, construction, problem solving, and discussion. Interpretations are given frequently from a personal viewpoint rather than from the point of view of society in general, and both reality and imagination may be mixed together.

Language patterns are those of the family and playmates. Vocabulary is factual, specific, and related to real experiences, not to generalities. Misconceptions are in evidence and should be noted by the teacher and corrected through carefully planned experiences.[11] Two-way communication involving careful listening and related response

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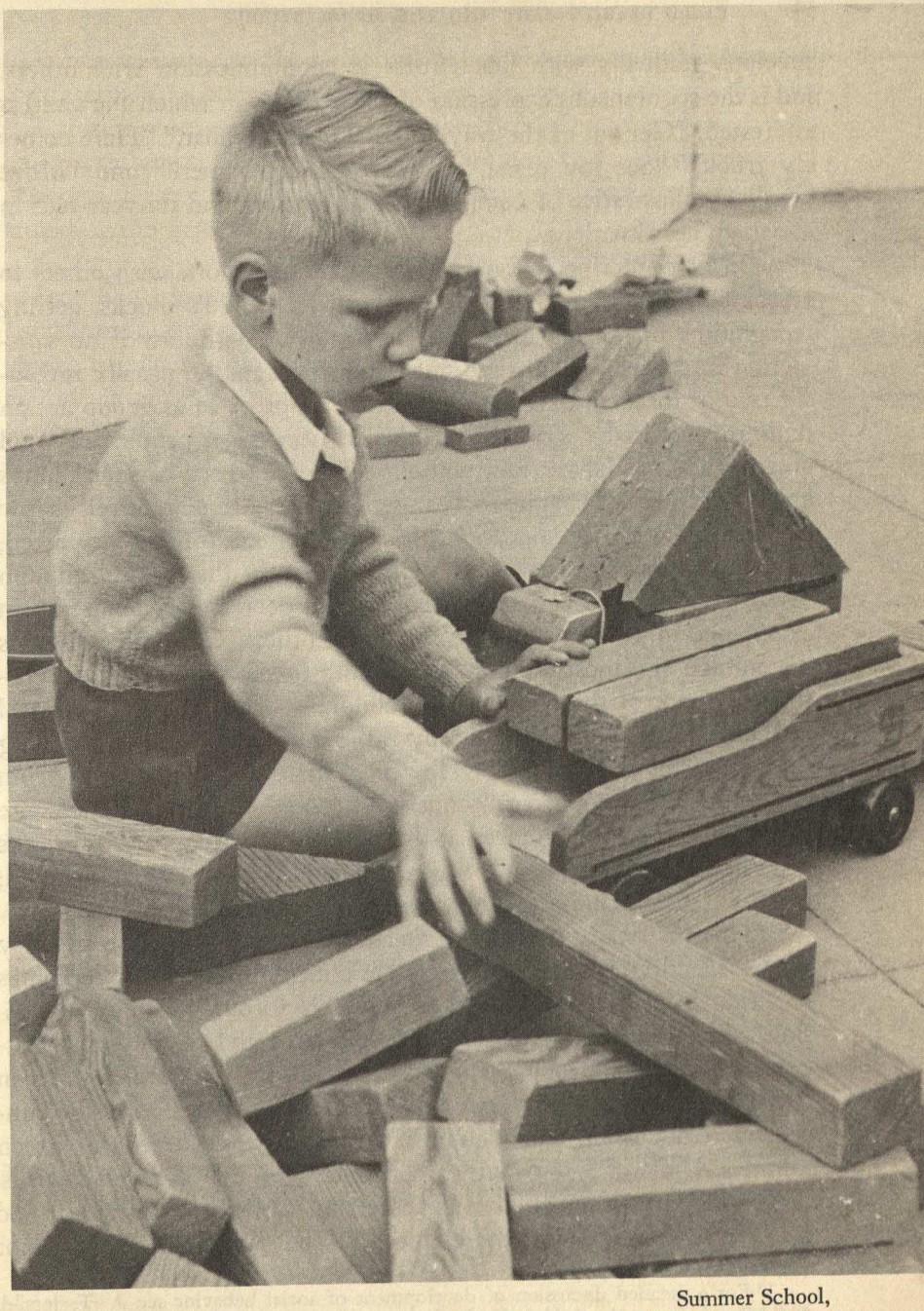
[9] Jean M. Deutsche, *The Development of Children's Concepts of Causal Relations*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1937.

[10] Louise B. Ames, "The Development of the Sense of Time in the Young Child," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 68:97-125, 1946; K. C. Friedman, "Time Concepts of Elementary Children," *Elementary School Journal*, 44:337-42, 1944; Joy M. Lacey, *Social Studies Concepts of Children in the First Three Grades*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932; and Cathryn A. Probst, "A General Information Test for Kindergarten Children," *Child Development*, 2:82-86, June, 1931.

[11] Lacey, *op. cit.*; and Faith W. Smitter, "Relating the Curriculum to Child Growth and Development," *The Principal and Curriculum Building* (John U. Michaelis, Ed.), Twentieth Yearbook, California Elementary Principals Association. Oakland: The Association, 1948, p. 26.



Summer School,
University of California, Berkeley

The young child needs large manipulative materials to meet his needs for physical activity. What other materials might be used?

develops gradually with first efforts at communication with others, and is the spontaneous expression of those things in which the child is interested. "Get out of the way," "Let's load the boat," "Here comes my truck," "See my plane," "Where's the hammer?" and "Move over!" are illustrative of comments made by five- and six-year-olds in social studies situations.

On first entering school, children play and work with others to satisfy personal desires, such as using another child's blocks, getting recognition, or sharing materials; they stop or withdraw if no satisfaction is secured. Groups are small and shift rapidly, usually involving two or three and increasing to six or eight or so as group action skills are acquired.[12] Friends are selected because of propinquity and objects they may share, and without reference to sex or social status unless pressure is brought to bear by parents. Minor quarrels, show of temper, crying, and occasional hitting of others are to be expected, with boys using physical force more frequently than girls, although resort to physical force to achieve one's ends decreases as children gain experience in working and playing with others. Criticism of self is uncommon and most children are willing to show pictures and perform in front of the others. Some children seek status and approval in their efforts to outdo others by making a "better boat," or doing things "better than he did." However, there is some shifting from self-centeredness to group concerns as cooperative experiences are provided. In general, children at the primary level like to show adults that they are "growing up" and are eager to secure adult approval; some will need help in learning positive ways to gain approval.

There is steady growth in social skills throughout the primary grades. Children in Grade II consolidate many of the social learnings resulting from first experiences in school.[13] Group planning, discussion, action, and evaluation are more effective and to the point. Discussion periods are longer and group evaluation is more pointed in terms of "things to do" to get a given job done. Yet, periods of concentrated discussion and planning will rarely exceed ten to fifteen minutes. Units of work may extend over a period of several weeks, depending upon availability of materials, variety of activities, and maturity and interests of the children.[14] Yet, care must be taken not

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[12] For a detailed discussion of development of social behavior see A .T. Jersild, *Child Psychology*, 4th ed. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954, pp. 177-298.

[13] Committee of the Framework for the Social Studies, *op. cit.* For an intensive study of seven-year-olds see Barbara Biber, *et al.*, *Child Life in School: A Study of a Seven-Year-Old Group in School.* New York: E. P. Dutton, 1942.

[14] Committee of the Framework for the Social Studies, *op. cit.*

to continue a unit to the point where social learning diminishes and the interest of children declines. Their dramatic play and rhythms still possess spontaneity and zest, but are becoming more patterned as children attempt to add realism and more detail in such sequences of action as going to the farm, loading, coming to town, and unloading trucks at the market.

Many eight-year-olds develop some new characteristics which differentiate them from six- and seven-year-olds. Individual differences continue to increase. Visual fusion is more stable and reading ability is increasing rapidly. Attention and interest spans are longer, energy output is greater, and more attention is given to detail in construction and art work. Group action skills are improving, and identification with group planning and evaluating is more complete than in former years.[15] Important growth trends include increasing ability to differentiate between reality and fantasy, growing language skills, more effective use of past experience, and increasing interest that extends outward from the immediate community to wider areas of experience.[16]

Throughout the primary level and on into the intermediate and upper level, children face several new developmental tasks.[17] Steady growth is expected in developing language and number skills, wholesome attitudes toward oneself and toward others, and concepts necessary for daily living. Each child is faced with such tasks as learning the skills involved in various games, getting along with one's age mates, and accepting an appropriate sex role in various situations. In addition, society sets the task of developing a conscience, a scale of values, and a moral code. All of these should be viewed as a "growing and developing" in nature, not as demands by society which can be met successfully in a set period of time. Yet the fact must be recognized that when children do not meet developmental tasks successfully, their socialization is retarded and they do not develop feelings of security and *belonging*.

The development of positive attitudes needs special mention. It has been shown that the verbal expression of negative attitudes (prejudices) begins early in some communities.[18] Children in Kindergarten and Grade I have been found to express a dislike for members of various minority groups. Their attitudes toward others begin to de-

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[15] Smitter, *op. cit.*, p. 27.

[16] Committee of the Framework for the Social Studies, *op. cit.*

[17] Havighurst, *op. cit.*

[18] C. B. Stendler and W. E. Martin, *Intergroup Education in the Primary Grades.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953, pp. 6-18.

Los Angeles

First-level cooperation may be seen in parallel play and in partnership activities.

velop and to be expressed as they differentiate particular persons and groups from those with which they are familiar.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES. Several basic guidelines stem from the growth characteristics of children in the primary grades. These relate to both procedures and content, as shown in the following summary.

1. Social experiences for beginners in school must be related to their short attention span, short-term and spontaneous interests, incessant physical activity, curiosity, desire to manipulate and handle things, and limited ability for cooperative work. Variable and short-term interests running from a day or two to a week or so should be utilized, rather than sustained units of work. Typical centers of interest in Kindergarten and Grade I are the playhouse, store, school, fire station, filling station, pets, trucks, and similar aspects of the immediate environment. At intervals throughout the year these may be returned to, and developed to higher levels.

2. Blocks, toys, manipulative materials, large illustrative materials, simple construction, clay work, and freedom in rhythms, dramatic play, discussion, conversation, and physical activity are essential.

3. The daily program should provide for physical activity and rest, freedom of choice in various centers of interest, freedom of movement, sharing and telling, and varied experiencing.[19] Boys and girls should work and play together, but care should be taken not to place boys in unfavorable competition with girls, who, in general, are more mature.[20]

4. Individual, parallel, and small group play require teacher guidance toward more cooperative relationships. Groups at centers of interest should be small at first, involving two or three and increasing to five or six as children grow in group action skills. Dramatic representation or play is a major method of learning and should be observed carefully by the teacher in order to discover needs, problems, and evidences of growth.[21]

5. Informal group evaluation in response to specific needs, short discussions involving sharing of materials brought from home, and telling about personal experiences are essential first steps in developing effective group processes.

6. After children make first adjustments to life in school they can be guided into more sustained activities, and larger groups of

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[19] Committee of the Framework for the Social Studies, *op. cit.*

[20] Smitter, *op. cit.*, p. 27.

[21] Committee of the Framework for the Social Studies, *op. cit.*

children may become involved in a given enterprise and carry it on over a somewhat longer period of time. For example, group sharing and discussion, dramatic play centering in the playhouse, play with blocks, and construction of simple objects may be centered upon the same ideas or topic for several days. Increased experience makes it possible to provide short-term units on home, school, and neighborhood. Emphasis should be given to ways in which members of the family, boys and girls in school, and people in the neighborhood play, work, and live together. Situations of interest and concern to the group should be given central consideration.

7. Concepts must be related to the here and now, and clearly tied to concrete experiences throughout the primary grades. Firsthand experiences are prerequisite to and should parallel vicarious experiences involving the use of such materials as pictures, objects, films, books, and stories. Inadequacy of concepts and uses of concepts should be noted as children engage in discussion, dramatic play, and related activities.

8. Improved muscular coordination of seven- and eight-year-olds makes possible construction and drawing with a little more detail, yet too specialized and refined work in art and construction is inappropriate. Because physical endurance is increasing and attention-interest span is greater, work periods and dramatic play increase in length and include the use of more materials. Improving skill in reading, oral and written language, and numbers makes possible more effective sharing of ideas and improvement in problem-solving ability. Pictures, group-dictated stories, and simple charts should still be used to summarize experiences and extend concepts.

9. Various aspects of community living may be explored with success in Grade II. Typical units in which seven-year-olds are greatly interested include the Farm, Dairy, Bakery, Post Office, Firemen, and Policemen. They are able to discover simple relationships between community activities, such as transporting food from the bakery and dairy to stores, growing products on the farm for use in the home, and the contributions of different individuals to life in the community. These understandings are expressed effectively through dramatic play, discussion, art, and related activities.

10. The developing interests of eight-year-olds make possible more extended units in the social studies. In Grades I and II children have learned many things about the home, school, neighborhood, and the immediate community. They may now undertake more intensive

studies of aspects of living in the expanded community, such as transportation by trains or boats, wholesale market, water supply, and ways of securing food, shelter, and clothing. Clearer understandings of how people depend upon one another and help each other should be emphasized. These must be developed concretely through the use of excursions, dramatic play, and audio-visual materials, as well as through reading and discussion. A consideration of the ways in which people in the community meet needs for food, shelter, and clothing provides many opportunities for increasing insight into basic life processes.

11. The developing *strands of meaning* which children in Grade III use as a background for considering the ways of living of other groups are not primarily historical or geographical. That is, as children study life in the expanded community or a simple primitive culture, the major emphasis is not on how long ago, how far away, or the number of square miles. From the child's point of view, it is more a matter of comparing and noting likenesses and differences in ways of living of others as compared with ways of living in his home and immediate community. The understandings the child has developed, his background of experience and concepts, then, become his strands of meaning for considering other communities.

12. Attention should be given to developmental tasks as experiences are planned and developed in the social studies. Language, numbers, and other skills should be strengthened through practical use in each unit of work. Wholesome attitudes toward oneself and others, concepts of social and physical aspects of the environment, and group-action skills can be developed in daily activities as well as through guided experiences involving the use of audio-visual materials and textbooks. Specific emphasis can be given to democratic values and morality in our culture as children meet daily problems and as they undertake units of work dealing with home and family, the neighborhood, and community living.

INTERMEDIATE LEVEL

The transition from Grade III to IV is not a sharp break in the child's development. The "whole child" continues to develop gradually in line with his growth pattern. Individual differences continue to increase, and there is much overlapping of growth characteristics between grades. Developmental tasks continue to be of major impor-

tance as children develop more refined skills, make rapid progress in the formation of concepts, tend to form a more cohesive set of values, and take on a more clear-cut sex role. Although all children face the same general tasks, different expectancies exist for boys and girls, and for children in different socio-economic groups.[22] Thus boys are expected to be somewhat rougher and more skilled in sports. Children from lower socio-economic homes are taught to fear authority rather than to respect it. Middle-class children typically are taught to comply with regulations, not necessarily to fear them. Differences such as these should be kept in mind as the following growth characteristics are read.

Physical growth continues to be steady but slow, with a lag just before puberty.[23] Children in Grades IV, V, and VI have a great amount of energy, and boys like to show their physical prowess. Some girls enter the pubertal cycle, and girls generally are more advanced than boys. Eye-hand coordination and manipulative skill are developed continuously to a point at which many children demonstrate real competence in detailed construction, drawing, and weaving. Postural defects sometimes appear and may indicate fatigue, malnutrition, infection, emotional disturbances, orthopedic problems, or other difficulties. Bodily growth is more rapid than heart growth, and lungs are not fully developed. Physical competition with stronger children is undesirable.

Intellectual growth is marked by active curiosity, wide interests, the making of varied collections, increased language facility, improved reading ability, rich creative work, and growth in social concepts. Work and play are differentiated, real and fanciful are distinguished, and dramatic play and construction become more realistic and detailed than in former years. Attention span is increasing and concentration may be given to a task for a long period of time. Level of aspiration increases as children mature and may be reflected in more effective self-criticism, and in hesitancy on the part of some children to show their work or take part in dramatic representation of things learned in school. Goals are still relatively immediate, but children can now make more effective plans for future events.

Insight into causal relationships is developing and is manifested

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[22] For a concise summary see W. E. Martin and C. B. Stendler, *Child Development.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., Inc., 1953, pp. 274-281.

[23] For a summary of research on physical growth see Helen Thompson, "Physical Growth," *Manual of Child Psychology, op. cit.,* pp. 292-334. For a good discussion of motor development see A. T. Jersild, *Child Psychology,* 4th ed. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954, pp. 147-176.

by many *why* and *how* questions[24] and the ability to explain such phenomena as the movement of boats and windmills and the differences between people living in different environments. Children make simple generalizations such as "We're getting closer together now that airplanes can take us to different countries," and, "The Pioneers had courage." Specific attention needs to be given to cause-effect relationships in social situations as problems arise.[25] Effective ways to work together, the development and use of standards, and self-evaluation should be emphasized. Many children do not anticipate the outcomes of their behavior and need guidance in "thinking ahead" in terms of the welfare of the group as well as in personal welfare.

Rapid growth takes place in the development of communication skills. Reading ability, skill in writing, and listening skills become more refined and are used functionally in situations that arise in the social studies. Discussion ability develops continuously, and tends to move from individual interests to topics and problems of group concern.[26]

Interests expand and become diverse during the intermediate grades.[27] Both boys and girls are interested in fiction, adventure, travel puzzles, and the *why* and *how* of things. Interest in reading reaches its height at eleven or twelve years of age. Sex differences may be noted in children's interest as boys show more concern for mechanical things, model making, science, boys' games, and outdoor life, while girls show culturally stimulated interests in home life, parties, sewing, girls' games, and other "things that girls do." Interest in the environment is extended beyond the community into ever-widening areas such as the state, nation, and other countries.

Interest in television programs is high and appears to be the favorite leisure-time activity of elementary school children in urban areas.[28] Upwards of twenty hours per week on the average are spent

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[24] See Emily V. Baker, *Children's Questions and Their Implications for Planning the Curriculum*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945; and J. M. Deutsche, *The Development of Children's Concepts of Causal Relations*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1937.

[25] Arthur Blair and W. H. Burton, *Growth and Development of the Preadolescent*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1951, pp. 23-24.

[26] For a discussion of changes in children's general discussions at various levels of development see H. V. Baker, "Children's Contributions in Elementary School General Discussion," *Child Development Monographs*, No. 29. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942.

[27] For an excellent summary of studies of children's interests see A. T. Jersild, *op. cit.*, pp. 500-520; and Leonard Carmichael (Ed.), *Manual of Child Psychology*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1954, pp. 1075-1085.

[28] Paul Witty, "Children and TV—A Sixth Report," *Elementary English*, 32:469-476, November, 1955.

in viewing programs classified as *Westerns*, *Comedy*, *Sports*, *Quiz*, *Drama*, *Science*, *Current Events*, and *Variety*. Preparation and use of guides for the selection of programs has been found to be helpful in upgrading the quality of programs chosen by children. The amount of televiewing by children at this level is not closely related to intelligence or achievement. In some cases the effect of televiewing has been found to be undesirable, while in others it has been found to stimulate better work in school. The number of educational programs is increasing and they hold great promise for the enrichment of the social studies.

In some school systems there is a decrease in children's interest in the social studies beginning in Grade IV and continuing through the program. Yet, in Jersild's and Tasch's study, children requested that they be provided opportunities to learn more about social topics which fall under the general heading of social studies.[29] Approximately 50 per cent of the children's questions in Baker's [30] study are within the area of the social studies. Their questions are related to family problems, relationships to others, social activities, local conditions, community living, government, taxes, current events, holidays, customs of others, other places and peoples, inventions and a host of other topics. These facts should encourage teachers to develop a program that is interesting, challenging, and related to the needs of children and the conditions in the community in which they live. Jersild and Tasch state that the negative reactions which they found to the social studies might differ if more attention were given to issues and topics "that touch upon children's own feelings and that have a bearing on emotional currents in their own lives." [31]

Social concepts develop gradually as children mature, although there is much overlapping from grade to grade and wide variation among children within a given grade.[32] There is an especially rapid growth of social studies concepts from Grade IV through Grade VIII.

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[29] A. T. Jersild and R. J. Tasch, *Children's Interests and What They Suggest for Education*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949, pp. 27-34.

[30] E. V. Baker, *Children's Questions and Their Implications for the Curriculum*, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945.

[31] Jersild and Tasch, *op. cit.*, p. 28.

[32] F. L. Bates, *Factors Related to Children's Understanding of Social Studies Concepts*, Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Berkeley: University of California, 1947; Harry Ordan, *Social Concepts and the Child Mind*. New York: King's Crown Press, 1945; Margaret W. Curti, "Child Development and Concepts." (Walter S. Monroe, Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950, pp. 176-178; T. J. Eskridge, Jr., "Growth in Understanding of Geographic Terms in Grades IV to VII," *Duke University Research Studies in Education*, No. 4. Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1939.

San Diego County

Children's interest in other places and other people is easy to stimulate in the middle and upper grades. What are some other ways in which interests can be aroused at this level?

Children also form misconceptions and stereotypes which must be corrected,[33] and there is a considerable amount of verbalism or use of terms without adequate foundations of meaning. For example, a study by Scott and Myers [34] revealed that many children could name an explorer but could not give the meaning of the term *explorer.*

In a study of breadth, depth, and height of children's vocabularies and their meanings, Russell [35] found that concept development becomes more specialized as children mature; girls appear to specialize somewhat earlier than do boys. Breadth of social studies concepts seems to be somewhat independent of the development of concepts in other areas. Specific attention must be given to the development and evaluation of social studies concepts in particular, not just to the development and evaluation of concepts in general.

Although many time concepts are known by children in the intermediate grades, chronology and historical time cannot be grasped by most children until they are in junior or senior high school.[36] Similarly, space concepts of sphericity of the earth, such as longitude and latitude, are not really learned by most children until they are in the upper grades or in junior high school.[37] Jersild states that "the problem becomes one of cutting to size the ideas and concepts that go into the social studies curriculum and of harnessing these to projects which have meaning in the everyday lives of children." [38] Horn's writings forcibly reveal the need for using excursions, models, construction, and other concrete experiences at all levels in the program in order to develop clear concepts.[39]

Social development is marked by the emergence of group values

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[33] Rose Zeligs, "Racial Attitudes of Children as Expressed by Their Concepts of Races," *Sociology and Social Research,* 21:361-371, April, 1937.

[34] F. Scott and G. C. Myers, "Children's Empty and Erroneous Concepts of the Commonplace," *Journal of Educational Research,* 8:327-334, November, 1923.

[35] D. H. Russell, *The Dimensions of Children's Meaning Vocabularies in Grades Four Through Twelve.* University of California Publications in Education, Vol. 11, No. 5, pp. 315-414. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1954, pp. 361-364, 374.

[36] See Frederick Pistor, "How Time Concepts Are Acquired by Children," *Educational Method,* 20:107-112, November, 1940; and Kopple C. Friedman, "Time Concepts of Elementary School Children," *Elementary School Journal,* 44:337-342, February, 1944.

[37] E. B. Wesley, "Social Studies," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (W. S. Monroe, Ed.). New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950, p. 1227.

[38] A. T. Jersild and Associates, *Child Development and the Curriculum.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946, p. 115.

[39] Ernest Horn, "Language and Meaning," *The Psychology of Learning,* Forty-first Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1942, pp. 377-413; and *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937, Chaps. IV and X.

and social attitudes, sex cleavage, formation of cliques, and increased interest and skill in cooperative activities. In activities they themselves initiate,[40] boys and girls tend to separate on the basis of sex and to form cliques. They have their own leaders and they place high value on the thoughts, feelings, actions, and standards of their group. Leaders are usually above average in appearance, fluency of speech, intelligence, self-control, and athletic ability.

Aggression toward others is still in evidence in such forms as teasing, ostracizing, criticizing, and ridiculing others, but overt acts such as hitting and fighting tend to decrease.[41] Studies of social classes reveal that children from lower-class homes tend to fight more for what they want than do children from middle- and upper-class homes.[42] Gesell [43] stresses the importance of recognizing that interpersonal conflicts of children are specific and concrete from the child's point of view. Conflicts should be approached in a concrete way without appeals to virtue, the past, the future, or some other point of reference which is abstract from the child's point of view. Children at this level need assistance in the specific situations in which they find themselves.

Adult values are not so highly regarded as in earlier years, and are often rejected, especially when they are in conflict with peer values.[44] Children in the middle grades strive to become more self-directive and more independent; they want to assert themselves. There is a tendency to shift from identification with parents and teachers to identification with one's peers. Acceptance by one's peers is a major concern; rejection by them creates feelings of insecurity and anxiety. Rejection by adults, or behavior of adults, such as ridicule and sarcasm which leads to feelings of rejection, also creates feelings of insecurity. A major need of children at this level is to maintain security with adults, and at the same time gain prestige among their peers. A code of behavior with peers is emerging and has fine shades of meaning that must not be overlooked.[45] For example, boys who

[40] For a good discussion see Jersild and associates, *op. cit.*, pp. 29-130; Helen L. Koch, "A Study of Some Factors Conditioning Social Distance Between the Sexes," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 20:79-107, August, 1944; and E. H. Campbell, "The Social-Sex Development of Children," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 21:461-552, November, 1939.

[41] Ellsworth, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

[42] Allison Davis, *Social Class Influences Upon Learning*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1948.

[43] Arnold Gesell and F. L. Ilg, *The Child From Five to Ten*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946, p. 336.

[44] Blair and Burton, *op. cit.*, pp. 24-33.

[45] Ellsworth, *op. cit.*, pp. 36-40.

are overly boisterous or rough in activities with girls may not be accepted by the group. Cooperation with others in school activities reaches a high level, and group standards can be developed and used effectively in many situations. Group planning, cooperative action, and group evaluation can be used effectively if guided by the teacher. If sound teacher-pupil relationships exist, child-teacher conflicts are at a minimum.

There is a growing sense of right and wrong—moral and ethical values—[46] and a greater willingness to use persuasion and reason in attaining one's goals. A more critical sense of justice is emerging with emphasis upon such practical values as fair play, being a good sport, concern for others, respect for constituted authority, and honesty. Many opportunities exist to inculcate moral and spiritual values that will help to improve human relationships in the immediate situation, and will serve as a basis for extending and enriching values in the future.

Social attitudes assume increasing importance in the intermediate grades, although they are in process of development at all levels. Criswell's [47] study indicates that racial cleavage increases with age and is high by Grade V; children below Grade IV typically show little prejudice toward others. However, it has been shown that even five-year-olds in certain situations are aware of, and express, various stereotypes about minority groups.[48] Other studies indicate that some children in the middle grades form stereotypes about races and nationalities,[49] tend to have social attitudes similar to their parents, and form rationalizations for their attitudes during adolescence.[50] The knowledge children possess about a group conditions their attitudes toward the group.[51] Children from authoritarian homes tend to be more prejudiced than do children from homes with a democratic atmosphere.[52]

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[46] Blair and Burton, *op. cit.*, p. 90.

[47] J. H. Criswell, "Racial Cleavage in Negro-White Groups," *Sociometry*, 1:81-89, 1937.

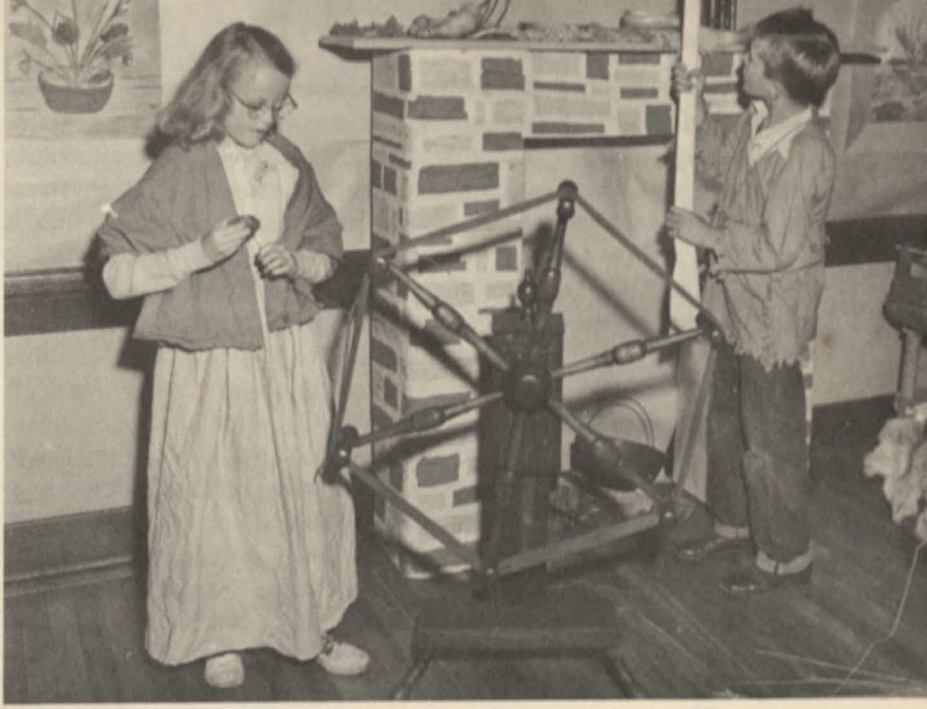
[48] M. Radke, H. G. Trager, and H. Davis, "Social Perceptions and Attitudes of Children," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 40:327-447, 1949.

[49] H. Meltzer, "Group Differences in Nationality and Race Preferences of Children." *Sociometry*. 2:86-105, January, 1939; and Rose Zeligs, "Racial Attitudes of Children," *Sociology and Social Research*, 21:361-371, March-April, 1937.

[50] E. L. Horowitz and R. E. Horowitz, "Development of Social Attitudes in Children," *Sociometry*, 1:301-338, January-April, 1938.

[51] G. Murphy, Lois B. Murphy, and T. M. Newcomb, *Experimental Social Psychology*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1937.

[52] D. B. Harris, H. G. Gough, and W. E. Martin, "Children's Ethnic Attitudes: II. Relationship to Parental Beliefs Concerning Child Training," *Child Development*, 21:169-181, 1950.



Los Angeles

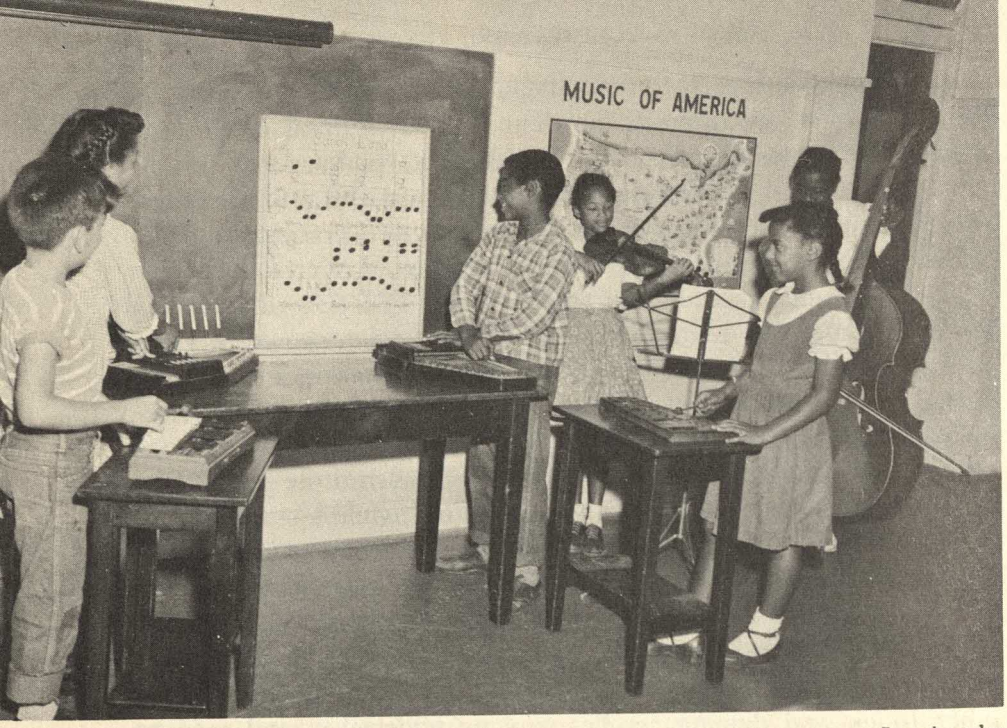
Dramatic representation becomes more patterned and more detailed as children mature.

Implications for the Social Studies. There are several implications of the foregoing growth characteristics for the social studies program in the intermediate grades.

1. A smooth transition from the primary grades to Grade IV is essential. No abrupt changes should occur, as many children will develop a feeling of insecurity and a lack of interest in the program if continuity is disrupted.

2. Provision should be made for an increasing range of individual differences in all phases of the program. Differences in reading ability, communication skills, ability to use maps and globes, and problem-solving skills increase as children mature. As a result, the use of materials of varying levels of difficulty, flexible grouping, individualized procedures, and varying degrees of expectancy in evaluation become mandatory. By providing for a variety of activities in each unit, all children can make a contribution.

3. Consideration must be given to the varied interests of boys and girls in selecting methods and materials, and in grouping children



Los Angeles

Creative expression reaches a high level in the middle grades. What other types of creative activity should be provided in connection with social studies experiences?

14. Extended periods of time should be provided to complete cooperatively planned tasks. At times, it may be necessary to combine two or more periods (such as art and social studies) in order to carry out various responsibilities.

15. Rich experiences should be provided in creative expression through art, music, literature, and rhythms. A variety of media and materials are essential.

16. Increasing use should be made of individual and group self-evaluation. Charts, checklists, and group discussion are effective techniques for this purpose. (See Chapter 15 for specific suggestions on types of evaluative devices.)

UPPER GRADE LEVEL

Certain developmental tasks assume increasing importance during later childhood and the beginning of adolescence.[54] Many children

[54] Caroline Tryon and J. W. Lilienthal, *op. cit.*, pp. 77-128.

begin to work out a definite masculine or feminine role. Human relationships become more complex as children strive to gain increasing independence from adults and face new and interesting heterosexual relationships. "Crushes" on members of the opposite sex, sometimes on teachers, are in evidence. Greater identification with age mates leads many children to differentiate more clearly between their own world and the world of adults. Concern about self is great and peer values serve as guides to behavior in many social situations. Language patterns of the gang or clique assume great importance, and new problems of bodily control and personal appearance emerge as growth changes occur. Teachers and other adults who "speak down" to children at this age level, or who simulate their patterns or codes of behavior, are not highly regarded; they expect adults to "understand and accept" their problems and behavior and to provide guidance in a sympathetic and mature manner. Individual guidance is essential in many cases.

Many children in Grades VII and VIII are in a transitional pubescent period characterized by rapid growth, while others are still "growing children." A wide range of individual differences is to be expected among both boys and girls, and methods and materials must be selected with these differences in view. Rapid muscular growth, increased tendency to fatigue, variation in energy, poor posture, restlessness, and poor control as revealed by awkwardness are in evidence among those children in early adolescence.[55] Some children manifest changes in breasts, hips, and voice, along with fainting spells and dizziness. Teachers who understand are needed to prevent embarrassment. Heart growth is still behind bodily growth, and overexertion should be avoided. Many boys develop greater physical strength than girls, but girls generally have more precision in physical skills since they are more mature. Different levels of achievement are in evidence as map work, graphic illustration, and other activities involving detailed steps are undertaken.

Social development is marked by increasing cooperation, group approval, respect for sportsmanship, organized social activities, increasing interest in the other sex as children approach adolescence, and an increasing number of personal preferences. Social attitudes and social status tend to exert great influence in the selection of friends

[55] For an excellent analysis of physical changes and motor development during adolescence see chapters by Greulich, Bayley and Tuddenham, the Stolzes, and Jones and Conrad in *Adolescence*, Forty-third Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944. For a concise summary see J. E. Horrocks, "The Adolescent," *Manual of Child Psychology*, pp. 697-734.

San Diego County

The precision and skill which children possess at this level can be utilized in related art activities of many types. Can you think of others?

and participation in group activities. Group values still take precedence over adult values, but a more adultlike sense of values and a moral code are in process of development. Good sportsmanship is highly esteemed and leaders are chosen who reflect qualities admired

by the group.[56] Self-criticism, strong desires for freedom from adult domination, opportunity to make one's own decisions, and increasing interest in adult activities are in evidence. Boy-girl relationships, status in social groups, problems at home, vocational possibilities, and plans for the future are considered by more mature children in the upper grades.[57] Many will have selected one or two best friends. Racial attitudes are similar to those of their parents. Children at this level enjoy working with sincere, friendly, helpful, stable adults who understand them.

Interests are broadening, becoming more individualized, and are tending toward those of adults. Extreme likes and dislikes, interest in movies, radio and TV programs on an adult level, desire to learn more about themselves, and concern about future educational and vocational plans are characteristic of more mature children at this level. Science, adventure, mechanics, and sports interest boys, while girls show increasing interest in cosmetics, clothes, personal attractiveness, and romantic stories. Boys develop interest in personal appearance later than do girls. Increasing respect and concern are shown for responsibilities in social relationships, and many children at this level have a strong desire to become more effective in their relationships with others. Manners and courtesy take on a new importance as interest in the opposite sex increases. Emulation of individuals who have achieved success may be stimulated through reading, discussion, dramatics, and interviews. A wide range of interests will be found in different activities in the social studies.

Intellectual development is on a higher plane and is manifested by increasing interest in more advanced problems and ideas.[58] Individual differences have increased, and this fact must be recognized in the selection of methods and materials. Concepts develop rapidly. Ideas and values related to tolerance, right and wrong, and community problems interest many children, and there is increasing ability to develop and use generalizations. However, misconceptions and erroneous ideas are in evidence and need correction through planned experiences. Need still exists for much direct experiencing in order to assure continuous development of meaningful concepts and under-

[56] For a good analysis of values and preferences see C. M. Tryon, "The Adolescent Peer Culture," *Adolescence*, Forty-third Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1944, pp. 217-239.

[57] An excellent analysis of problems at this age is contained in L. H. Meek (Chairman), *Personal-Social Development of Boys and Girls with Implications for Secondary Education*. New York: Progressive Education Association, 1940.

[58] For an overview of mental growth see H. E. Jones and H. S. Conrad, "Mental Development in Adolescence," *Adolescence*, pp. 146-162.

standings. Problems are attacked with increasing skill, group planning and discussion are advanced, and sustained application can be given to the solution of problems. Language ability is developing, but slang is often used because of peer values.

Increased importance is attached to personal selection of activities, and arbitrarily imposed requirements are resisted by children of this age. High premium is placed on "brains." "Dummies" are not accepted unless they possess physical skills. Many children at this level tend to blame poor work on laziness.[59] Individual guidance is needed and welcomed if given indirectly and without offense. Children at this level have little insight into their own intellectual ability, although skill in self-criticism is increasing and self-evaluation may be used more effectively than in former years. Time and space concepts are more easily grasped, but historical sequences, chronology, and periods in history are not clearly defined, even though such devices as time lines are used.[60] Concrete experience and maturation are still prerequisite to high levels of development in this regard. Some individuals are beginning to develop an understanding of the importance of the past in understanding the present.

Implications for the Social Studies. The social studies in the upper grades should be a smooth continuum moving the group to higher levels of development. In general, the change is one of recognition of the emerging needs and problems of preadolescents and early-adolescents as shown in the following:

1. Group planning, discussion, and evaluation may be carried out on a high level. Care must be given to the sensibilities, needs and contributions of each individual, as many are self-conscious, supersensitive, and easily embarrassed. Rejection of contributions may lead to withdrawal and refusal to participate.

2. The desire of individuals to be on their own may be capitalized upon by means of independent and group research activities related to problems and topics in the social studies.

3. The development of increased ability to do abstract thinking, to develop generalizations, and to use work-study skills makes possible the use of more varied instructional resources and topics broader in scope. Social, political, economic, and ethical considerations may become a part of the program, provided they are related to backgrounds of experience and are introduced gradually. Many

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[59] Jersild and Associates, *op. cit.*, pp. 185-186.
[60] Pistor, *op. cit.*

firsthand experiences in the community are still needed and contribute greatly to problem-solving ability.

4. Extended units dealing with more complex relationships and activities are possible; examples are Latin America, Europe, United States, and Growth of Democracy.

5. Increased intellectual ability makes possible more intensive use of vicarious experiences. Maps, globes, references, library resources, and textbooks can be used with a higher degree of independence.

6. Group discussion and definition of problems should be carried out in line with clearly established procedures. Techniques for conducting meetings and participating in discussions should be developed to a high level. Discussion should be impersonal, objective, and open to all.

7. Critical analysis should be made of reading materials by pupils in order to detect conflicting points of view and to improve skill in securing reliable sources of information. Beginning steps can be taken in analysis of propaganda and persuasion materials.[61]

8. Individual guidance and indirect suggestions are needed to minimize embarrassment and resentment. Desire for independence provides an opportunity to bring about more effective group and individual planning.

9. A wide range of activities and materials are needed to meet individual differences and needs.

10. Care must be taken in the organization of committees and working groups so that embarrassment and loss of status will be avoided.

11. Because girls are generally more advanced in physical growth than boys, different levels of expectancy should be kept in mind as map work, graphic illustration, and other activities involving detailed work are undertaken. Here again, there will be wide individual differences among boys and girls.

12. Checklists, interest inventories, attitude scales, and personal rating devices can be used effectively in self-evaluation.

The foregoing analysis has suggested ways in which the social studies program can be related to the growth characteristics of children. Several growth trends have been enumerated. Perhaps a brief summary of strands of development of significance in the social studies

[61] I. James Quillen and Lavone A. Hanna, *Education for Social Competence.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman Company, 1948, Chap. XII.

will help to re-emphasize the fact that growth and development are continuous and gradual. Among these trends, are:

Growth in discussion ability, progressing from rather self-centered contributions and topics to concern for group ideas and plans.

Growth in group action skills, progressing from individual and parallel play to cooperative teamwork, and from personal wishes and values to group values and standards.

Growth in problem-solving ability, progressing from simple and immediate one-step problems to more complex problems involving several relationships.

Growth in concepts, progressing from those developed in concrete experiences in the home and school to those developed through both direct and vicarious experiences in an expanding environment.

Growth in dramatic play and dramatic representation, progressing from make-believe and free expression to realistic and patterned portrayal of significant events in community, state, national, and international settings.

Growth in construction ability, progressing from simple objects to those requiring precision and detail.

Growth from interest in the immediate environment to interest in faraway peoples and places.

Growth in ability to accept and discharge responsibility, progressing from situations involving oneself to situations involving several children.

Growth in reading skill, progressing from the readiness stage to the stage of wide and independent reading to secure information on a variety of problems.

Growth in emotional response, progressing from such behavior as hitting and crying to use of cooperative group processes.

Growth in self-evaluation skills, progressing from dependence upon adults for suggestions to slowly increasing ability to make self-appraisals.

Probably the greatest value in the child-development approach to education is the point of view implied for the planning, guidance, and evaluation of individual and group experiences. In brief, this point of view holds that the educational program must be geared to the nature and needs of children. As increasing numbers of teachers, principals, and supervisors adopt and use a developmental point of view in their daily work with children, instructional problems in the social studies and other areas of the curriculum will tend to be

solved with increasing skill and facility. This point of view also has several implications for essential conditions of learning. These are examined in the following chapter.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Discuss practical ways in which experiences in the social studies can be developed to help children meet developmental tasks successfully. Summarize specific experiences that can be carried out in units of work at various levels.

2. Discuss the implications suggested for different grade levels. Are there others that should be added? Which ones apply to a degree at all levels? Which ones are pertinent at particular levels?

3. Collect samples of children's work (drawings, charts, maps, etc.) in primary, intermediate, and upper grades. Arrange them in sequence and note changes in development from level to level.

4. Observe children in different grades as they engage in discussion, dramatic play, map making, and other social studies activities. What differences in maturity are in evidence from level to level? How does the teacher's role vary?

5. Visit schools in two different socio-economic areas of your community. Note differences in children's behavior in the classroom and on the playground. Which differences can be attributed to variations in socio-economic background? Can some differences be attributed to other factors such as the school program?

6. Discuss individual differences that should be expected at various levels of development even though certain growth characteristics may be typical of individuals in the group. For example, attention span, language and concept development, formation of cliques, interests, and the like.

7. Discuss children you know, or have known, with growth characteristics that deviate considerably from the growth characteristics outlined in this chapter. Can you give possible reasons for their deviation? Are any deviations detrimental to group adjustment?

8. The major emphasis in this chapter has been on implications of child development for the social studies. Discuss ways in which the social studies can contribute to wholesome child development. Give attention to physical, emotional, and intellectual development as well as to social development.

9. It is sometimes said that a teacher's point of view toward children is as important as having information about children. State reasons why this statement is of special significance in the social studies. Recall teachers with differing points of view toward children and summarize differences in children's reaction to them. Prepare a brief statement of your point of view toward children in primary, intermediate, or upper grades; discuss

it with others who are interested in teaching children at the same stage of development.

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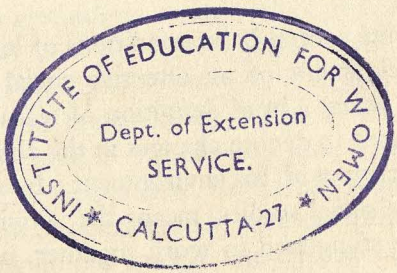

4

IMPROVING THE CHILD'S LEARNING

In addition to specific implications for the social studies mentioned in the preceding chapter, there are several principles and procedures for the improvement of learning which emerge from a consideration of how children grow, develop, and learn. They are helpful in organizing the social studies and in developing learning experiences with children. In this chapter, attention is given to (*a*) guidelines for the improvement of learning, (*b*) the development of attitudes, and (*c*) the development of concepts and understandings.

GUIDELINES FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF LEARNING

There are several basic conditions of learning which are essential to the development of an effective social studies program. Before considering them, a brief definition of learning is in order. The term *learning* is used to denote changes in the child's behavior which result from interaction with his environment.[1] Interaction with the environment, in the social studies, means the activity that takes place when children are stimulated to work together, use instructional materials, explore the community, and engage in construction, reading, discussion, and so forth, in order to solve real-to-the-child problems. Thus, learning is a process whereby the child modifies his behavior as he achieves purposes that are significant and meaningful. Now then, let us consider some conditions which will bring about desirable

[1] For a good discussion of learning see G. L. Anderson and A. I. Gates, "The General Nature of Learning," *Learning and Instruction*, 49th Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950, pp. 12-35.

changes in the child's behavior as he engages in social studies experiences.

Learning is improved when the instructional program is based on an understanding of each child's capabilities, interests, and background. In order to develop an adequate understanding of the children in a given group, it is necessary to use a variety of child-study techniques and procedures. The following are illustrative of those used in many school systems: (a) interviewing children, parents and former teachers and, at times, representatives of community agencies; (b) observing children in various situations; (c) giving and interpreting teacher-made and standardized tests; (d) using simple checklists, questionnaires, inventories, and rating scales; (e) studying group structure and social status by means of sociometric techniques; (f) examining samples of work and keeping files of sample materials to discover growth trends; (g) making case studies and participating in case conferences; (h) making anecdotal records; (i) having children keep diaries, (j) making logs of activities; (k) securing assistance from guidance workers; and (l) consulting cumulative records.[2]

The information gathered by means of child-study techniques can be used to plan units, select materials, organize working groups, and meet individual needs. Reading materials, for example, should range from simple, pictorial booklets for the child with relatively low reading ability to references that will challenge the most advanced children in the group. Other instructional resources must also be appropriate to the level of development of individuals in the group. Finally, the increased understanding of each child that the teacher derives from studying children in a given group is of inestimable value. An understanding of the child's needs and problems contributes greatly to rapport and warm human relationships in the classroom.

Learning is improved when it is recognized that multiple learnings may be involved in a given experience. Emotional, social, physical, and intellectual factors must be considered in each situation. Attitudes, concepts, and appreciations do not emerge one by one in an isolated manner. This is so because the child acts, reacts, and learns as a unitary being. The *whole child* is involved in the social studies as he is in all of the experiences which he undergoes.

This may be illustrated by pointing out that a child at work

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[2] Examples of evaluative devices are contained in Chapter 15. For a detailed discussion of child study techniques see T. L. Torgerson and G. S. Adams. *Measurement and Evaluation for the Elementary-School Teacher.* New York: The Dryden Press, 1954.

securing needed information in a unit on Pioneer Life may be learning several things simultaneously; he may learn some new facts, how to locate material more effectively, an appreciation for the hardships of the pioneers, how much more enjoyable it is to make plans than it is to carry them out, to dislike research work because the books are too difficult, or he may acquire misconceptions because certain concepts were not clearly developed prior to the beginning of the research period. Outcomes will vary, of course, depending upon each child's background of experience and his level of development. Some outcomes may be more potent than those which the teacher is emphasizing. For example, although the teacher's major purposes may be to improve research techniques and to gather information to use in problem solving, some children may be developing poor attitudes toward research activity, or even a dislike for the social studies.

Furthermore, the interrelationship of emotional, social, mental, and physical factors must not be overlooked because each affects the others. For example, if a child is tired, or has been disturbed by something which occurred before he came to school, his behavior may be vastly different from what is was the day before. If children are asked to sit still for an extended period of time, they lose interest in what they are doing and begin to move and wiggle to satisfy their urges for physical activity. If children are placed in situations which call for a higher order of social skills than they possess, they become frustrated and tend to withdraw. Tasks that are beyond the intellectual ability of children also create tensions and frustrations. Thoughts, feelings, relations to others, and physical well-being are all bound together in an inseparable manner. These facts make it imperative that the whole child be considered as experiences are developed in the social studies.

Learning is improved when experiences have satisfying emotional overtones for children. Children remember and apply the learnings which grow out of vital and stimulating experiences. Cold, dry, drab recitations of facts have very little effect upon children (except negatively, perhaps, by creating an aversion to the social studies) and are soon forgotten. Vital, dynamic, interesting experiences in the social studies in which children clarify problems, plan ways of attacking them, and achieve success in solving them are experiences that are long remembered.

The two contrasting examples which follow highlight the importance of vital learnings in the social studies program. First, let us consider a group which is studying the Westward Movement in a

formal, cold, and sterile manner. Very little is being done that arouses the children emotionally. The purpose of the lesson, in the teacher's mind at least, is to determine ways in which the pioneers secured food, shelter and clothing.

Teacher: Today we are to study ways in which the pioneers secured their food. I have selected a book that contains information on how they got their food. Please read pages 68 to 75 and keep a list of all the ways of getting food that you find in your reading. Raise your hand if you have a question.

In the following situation, the children and teacher are working together and are attacking the same type of problem. Notice the difference, however, in the approach being used.

Teacher: Yesterday as you dramatized life in Boonesboro, several of you raised questions regarding the ways in which food and clothing were secured. What were your questions?

Child A: Well, I was wondering how they got food outside of the stockade and how they brought it in.

Child B: Didn't they raise it right inside?

Child C: I was wondering how the women helped to provide food.

Child D: I read that they had a hard time getting food in winter.

Child E: I think they ate nuts and berries and deer meat.

Teacher: Those are good suggestions. How do you think we could find more information on ways and means in which they secured food?

In the ensuing discussion the children themselves proposed many procedures for getting at this problem. The emotional response was especially gratifying. Real interest was in evidence as the group proceeded to solve problems which were significant to them.

In addition to active participation on the part of children, other factors must be considered if learnings are to have upbuilding emotional overtones for children. It is helpful to use a variety of materials and procedures so that each child is challenged. The application of skills and information to plans of action of concern to children is effective. Opportunities should also be provided for children to satisfy their curiosity, to express themselves creatively, and to engage in dramatic play, construction, and rhythmic expression. These are stimulating modes of expression which contribute much to social learning and, at the same time, are satisfying modes of expression for children.

Learning is improved when the common basic needs of children

Los Angeles

What satisfying emotional overtones might be an outcome of experiences such as this?

are met. There are many common needs of children which must be accommodated if learning is to be effective. Those needs have been classified in many ways.[3] For purposes of our discussion they may be considered as physical, personal, and social needs.

1. *Physical Needs.* Children's needs for physical activity can be met in the social studies through excursions, rhythmic expression, dramatic representation, construction, opportunities to handle objects and models, and the processing of materials. Rest and relaxation may be provided through related drawing, painting, clay modeling, listening to stories, reading, creative language expression, and listening to recordings. A rhythm of activity and relaxation is essential in the daily program so that physical activity will be provided and overstimulation avoided.

2. *Personal or Ego Needs.* Children need to be considered as unique personalities, to develop personal competencies, to learn to cope with reality, to gain independence and skill in self-direction, to find a place for themselves among others, and to develop an understanding of life about them and their relationships to others. They need opportunities to satisfy their curiosity, to share, and communicate with others, and to express themselves creatively through language, art, music, and literature. Children also need to achieve personal success in meeting various developmental tasks such as learning to read, using tools and materials, using problem-solving skills, and getting along with others.

Personal needs may be met in the social studies through the provision of a variety of experiences that meet individual interests and abilities. Reading, construction, and related experiences in the arts must be paced with the child's level of development. Freedom of choice should be allowed in many instances in the selection of individual activities. Through creative work each child should express himself freely, discover potentialities, and make contributions to group activities. By sharing his work, helping on construction, and participating in dramatic representation, the child can develop feelings of competence and success, and grow in his ability to make personal contributions to group work. Through reading, seeing films, dramatic representation, and other activities, children may identify themselves with people in the community, state, nation, and other cultures,

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[3] Two good references related to basic needs of children are American Association of School Administrators. *Educating for American Citizenship.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1954. pp. 146-164; and D. A. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1938.

thereby gaining greater understanding of themselves in relation to others.

3. *Social Needs.* Social needs of elementary school children include group approval and acceptance, friendship and affection, feelings of security and belongingness, and sharing and communicating with others. These may be met in the social studies by providing for cooperative group work, giving each child an opportunity to contribute to group activities, recognizing each child's contributions, and relating responsibilities and tasks to each child's abilities, needs, and interests. Other effective ways of meeting children's social needs are sharing responsibilities, providing opportunities for making and using group standards, guiding individual and group self-evaluation, providing varied materials and experiences to promote cooperative activities, and drawing upon each child's individual competencies and special abilities in group work.

Learning is improved when teachers recognize that each child learns in his own way and at his own rate. Because of variations in individual growth patterns, physical and mental endowments, ideals, hopes and ambitions, past experiences, home life, status, and other background factors, each child learns in his own way and at his own rate. Although it is possible to describe growth characteristics of children at various age levels and to establish expectancies in different grades, these facts should not blind the teacher to the realization that each child must be considered as an individual with his own capacities, rate of growth, developmental needs and tasks, and ability to grasp and utilize concepts and meanings. Examples of individual differences may be found in reading levels, in ability to express ideas in oral and written form, in motor skills, in expression through art and music, and in the emotional and social adjustment of children to situations that arise in the social studies.

Teachers should also understand and be sensitive to differences among children due to varying social backgrounds, recognizing that children from the lower classes differ from those in the middle and upper classes in attitudes, moral values, customs, privileges, and training. For example, Havighurst[4] reported that middle-class parents have more rigorous training requirements than do lower-class parents, and that leisure time activities vary significantly. Middle-class children belong to the Boy Scouts and take music lessons more frequently than lower-class children, who, in turn, attend movies and participate in

[4] R. J. Havighurst, "Child Development in Relation to Community Social Structure," *Child Development,* 17:85-90, March, 1946.

youth center and neighborhood club activities with greater frequency than both middle and upper-middle class children.[5] However, there is some mixed participation in these activities, indicating that class interaction does exist to a small degree. Other studies have highlighted characteristics of various social classes and groups in American communities.[6] These characteristics contribute to individual differences and accentuate the fact that each child is a unique person who learns in his own way. Individual needs and differences should be met through the use of such procedures as grouping, varying activities and materials, giving individual help, varying the amount of time needed to complete work, simplifying content, using audio-visual materials, using community resources, developing individual and small-group projects, consulting with parents, providing reading materials on varied levels, and group planning on individual and small-group projects. Again, a sympathetic understanding of each child is of utmost importance.

Learning is improved when a rich environment is provided. Children learn as they interact with persons, objects, and materials in their environment. If maximum learning is to result from social studies experiences, it follows that careful attention must be given to the planning of a stimulating social studies environment for children. The social studies environment includes the teacher, the children themselves, instructional materials, and the community.

The teacher, working as a guide to help children recognize, define, and solve problems, is one of the most important elements in the child's school environment. The children themselves are a basic element because some of the richest social learnings grow out of interpersonal relationships.[7] The resources of the community are also

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[5] Margherita Macdonald, Carson McGuire, and R. J. Havighurst, "Leisure Activities and the Socioeconomic Status of Children," *American Journal of Sociology*, 54:505-519, May, 1949.

[6] For example, see Allison Davis, *Social-Class Influences Upon Learning* (Inglis Lecture). Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1948; W. L. Warner and P. S. Lunt, *Yankee City Series*, Vol. I. *The Social Life of a Modern Community*, and Vol. II. *The Status System of a Modern Community*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1942; W. L. Warner and L. Stole, *Yankee City Series*, Vol. III. *The Social Systems of American Ethnic Groups*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1945; W. L. Warner, R. J. Havighurst, and M. B. Loeb, *Who Shall Be Educated?* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944; C. B. Stendler, *Children of Brasstown; Their Awareness of the Symbols of Social Class*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1949; and L. Dolger and J. Ginandes, "Children's Attitudes Toward Discipline as Related to Socioeconomic Status," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 15:161-165, December, 1946.

[7] Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Creating a Good Environment for Learning*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1954.

important elements which should be drawn upon to enrich learning at all levels of development. The classroom should be viewed as a laboratory of learning, with changes in instructional materials being made as needs and problems arise. A first step in the development of many units of work is the arrangement of the classroom in such a way that interests, needs, and the recognition of problems are stimulated. (For suggested arrangements, see the Appendix, pp. 478-480.) Attention must also be given to the changing of materials as the unit develops so that new needs and interests can be stimulated.

The following example is illustrative of the manner in which one teacher arranged the classroom environment in order to begin a unit on The Farm with a group of seven-year-olds. (1) Several books dealing with work activities on the farm, farm animals, and products raised on the farm were placed in the reading center. (2) Colored illustrations in large sizes (18 x 24 inches) showing the farmer cutting wheat, feeding cattle, and pitching hay from the haymow were posted on the bulletin board. (3) Photographs showing such farm activities as milking, feeding the chickens, horses pulling the hay wagon, and plowing the fields were posted on another section of the bulletin board. (4) Play materials in one corner of the room included trucks, boxes, farm animals, blocks, and stand-patter dolls. (5) Boxes of various sizes, tools, nails, and racks for holding materials were placed in the construction center. (6) Various supplies, including clay, paper, crayolas, and tempera, were placed in the art center.

As the children entered this stimulating environment they raised many questions related to animals on the farm, the work of the farmer, uses of the trucks, things they could make, and interests they would like to investigate as they undertook a study of The Farm. From the standpoint of motivation this was a practical approach that aroused interest, developed intense curiosity, and established specific problems for the class to attack in a realistic manner.

Learning is improved when children actively engage in solving problems that are significant and purposeful to them. Little learning takes place when children sit passively and do not understand the purposes involved in a given situation. A first step in securing active participation is to develop real-to-the-child purposes so that motivation will be brought to a high level. Problems should be defined through group discussion in which the entire class helps to establish purposes. After purposes are clear and problems are defined, attention should be given to the group planning, action, and evaluation that are essential in collecting, organizing, and using data. Reading, dramatizing,

Alameda County

What questions and interests might be stimulated by an arrangement such as this? How might you arrange a classroom to stimulate basic questions and interests in a unit of work?

constructing, outlining, reporting and similar activities used to collect and organize information should be related to each child's level of development so that maximum participation can be secured. Attention should also be given to flexible grouping and provision of appropriate materials. As experiences are developed, and new problems arise, the teacher should bear in mind that active participation on the part of children in all phases of problem-solving leads to greater learning.

This may be illustrated by a brief description of a group of eight-year-olds at work during a unit on Boats and Harbor Life. The teacher had arranged a rich environment in the classroom which included models of boats, pictures, stories, attractive booklets, and

pamphlets related to activities in the harbor. As children explored the environment, many of them raised significant questions and made comments that gave real point to group discussion and planning in which purposes were clarified. Typical of the questions and comments were: "What is the tugboat for?" "How does the ferryboat work?" "What is a buoy used for?" "Can we make some boats?" "Where can we make a harbor?" "Look at these pictures!" "Can I read this story about the steamboat?"

Through group discussion many of these questions were clarified and restated as needs and purposes to be considered as the unit progressed. Several suggestions were considered and decisions were made by the group on what to do first. This was followed by a series of experiences involving group planning, doing, replanning, and evaluating. Among the types of activities undertaken by the group were construction, dramatic play, reading, listening, looking at pictures, seeing films and film strips, and a visit to the harbor. Thus the children actively participated in developing and achieving purposes that were real and significant to them.

Learning is improved when a variety of activities and instructional resources are drawn upon and used as problems arise. Children develop richer meanings, clearer concepts, and deeper understandings when many different avenues to learning are used. Formal approaches which rely on "readin' and writin'" are inadequate. In programs designed to secure maximum participation on the part of each child and rich interaction with the environment, experiences such as the following are in evidence:

Planning
Discussing
Reading
Listening
Writing
Telling
Conversing
Observing
Interviewing
Note taking
Outlining
Summarizing
Organizing
Reviewing
Describing
Announcing
Giving directions
Holding meetings
Evaluating
Drawing
Sketching
Modeling
Illustrating
Painting
Stenciling
Sewing
Constructing
Soap carving
Processing
Manipulating
Block building
Computing
Measuring
Collecting
Experimenting
Demonstrating
Dramatizing
Pantomiming
Expressing rhythmically
Composing
Playing
Singing
Sharing
Exhibiting

The following example shows how one group engaged in a variety of experiences to solve major problems which arose in a unit on Air Transportation. The problem, which had arisen in connection with the planning of a model airport, took the form of the question, "What do they do at the airport?" Working on this problem involved a wide variety of activities and materials. (1) Reading materials were collected on such topics as types of airports, development of airports, services provided, plans and needs of airports, and factors determining location of airports. (2) Pictures of airports were secured to note layouts and facilities. (3) Oral and written reports were prepared and shared with the group. (4) Many discussions were held in which collected information was appraised, organized, and put to use. (5) Scrapbooks were prepared to show various aspects of life at the airport. (6) A visit was made to an airport in order to secure information on specific problems. (7) Airport personnel were interviewed. (8) A pilot and stewardess were invited to come to the class and discuss specific problems with the group. (9) Thank-you notes were written to the visitors and to those at the airport who had helped. (10) Motion pictures, slides, and film strips about airports were utilized. (11) News items about airports were collected. (12) Simple sketches and plans were made for a model airport. (13) Models of buildings such as hangars and a dispatch tower were made. (14) Layouts were made for the runways. (15) Activities and services of the airport were dramatized. (16) Poems and stories about airports were composed and shared. (17) Pictures were drawn depicting life at the airport. (Several additional examples are contained in the sample units in the Appendix, pages 441-513.) Through the use of varied activities the teacher provided many opportunities for each child to participate in the development of the unit.

Learning is improved when children grasp the relationships between materials and activities they are using and the purposes they are attempting to achieve. It is not enough simply to use a variety of activities and materials in the social studies. A basic step in problem solving is to consider activities and materials needed to achieve purposes. Thus, such skills as outlining, letter writing, reading, and interviewing, or such materials as film strips, charts, maps, and globes should be considered in the light of purposes set by the group. Types of questions that may well be considered in group planning are: "What sources of information can be used to solve this problem?" "Which procedures will be most effective?" "What materials are needed?" Problem solving is more effective and transfer of learning appears to

be facilitated when consideration is given to group discussion of procedures to use in order to achieve significant purposes. (See Chapter 6 for a detailed discussion of group planning and problem solving.)

In addition to group planning on materials and activities needed to solve a given problem, attention should also be given to skills and their utilization as specific difficulties arise. The following excerpt from a discussion illustrates how one group considered difficulties in letter writing which arose in a unit on Air Transportation.

Teacher: What are some of the problems you had in planning your letters to the aviation company?
Child A: I had a hard time starting mine.
Child B: I got mixed up on the heading.
Child C: I wasn't sure of just what we should ask for.
Child D: I had the same trouble as Mary.
Child E: I wasn't sure how to end my letter.
Child A: What form should we use to address the envelope?

The above problems led to a purposeful analysis of letter-writing techniques. Difficulties mentioned by the children were listed on the blackboard and used to direct a careful study of letter writing. The need was vital to the children and the subsequent practice which they had in the organization and writing of letters made sense to them. Similar examples may be drawn with reference to the use of maps, outlines, reading materials, and other resources.

Learning is improved when there is continuity in the child's educational experiences. The past experiences of the child constitute his frame of reference for meeting new situations. Concepts and generalizations gleaned from previous experiences are the child's tools for thinking and acting as he meets new situations and has new experiences; there are no others for him to use. As he matures and encounters similar concepts in varied situations, his background of understanding grows and develops. Continuous growth can be brought about through guidance that helps the child to relate one experience to another, and to discover the relationships that exist between them. Transfer of learning is optimum when children's past experiences are related to new experiences through a consideration of common ideas, skills, generalizations, attitudes, and feeling tones. This principle is significant for planning learning experiences from day to day, from unit to unit during the year, and from year to year as children progress through school. Continuity of experience from day to day can be secured through group planning and evaluation in which children

consider needs and problems as they arise, and draw upon past experiences in order to make plans to solve them. Continuity from unit to unit can be achieved by having each new unit develop out of interests and problems that have arisen in the preceding unit. This problem is discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

The selection of units, reading materials, art media, materials of construction, and audio-visual materials must be carried out with continuity of learning in mind; each of the foregoing should be considered in the light of children's past experiences in order to determine if the time is ripe for their use. Similarly, in the evaluation of learning the teacher should appraise the development of interests, concepts, and attitudes in the light of past experiences. Growth in various aspects of social learning, such as cooperation or leadership qualities, may seem remarkable in one child because of his background or previous experiences, whereas for another child the same type of behavior may not be unusual at all. By evaluating in terms of past experiences the teacher can get more reliable evidence on the rate and extent of growth that is taking place within each child.

Social learning is improved when a democratic group atmosphere is developed and maintained. Each child needs to be a member of the group—to feel secure, have prestige, and contribute to group activities. Democratic values should permeate all phases of the program. Group processes involving cooperative planning, discussion, action, and sharing and evaluation should characterize classroom procedure. Research studies [8] suggest that democratic atmospheres are more conducive to wholesome social learning than are authoritarian or laissez-faire atmospheres. For example, in studies of children's clubs, teacher-pupil groups, and activity programs, it has been found that acceptance of responsibility, cooperation, interest, and group relationships are on a much higher level in democratic groups. Negative behavior, hostility, rejection of others, and competition are greater in autocratic groups.[9] As pointed out in Chapter 1, democratic values and processes should be a part of all phases of the school program.

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[8] A. Bavelas and Kurt Lewin, "Training in Democratic Leadership," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 37:115-119, January, 1942.

[9] C. B. Stendler, D. Damrin, and A. Haines, "Studies in Cooperation and Competition: I. The Effects of Working for Group and Individual Rewards on the Social Climate of Children's Groups," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 79:173-197, December, 1951; K. Lewin, R. Lippitt, and R. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created Social Climates," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10:271-299, May, 1939; R. Lippitt, "An Experimental Study of the Effect of Democratic and Authoritarian Group Atmospheres," *University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare*, No. 16, 3:43-195, 1940.

Learning is improved when consideration is given to the child's developing self-concept. By self-concept is meant the child's picture, or view of himself.[10] The child's self-concept conditions his response to others, his perception of the behavior of others, and his attitudes toward others. These in turn, of course, influence the reaction of others toward the child. He is most aware of the characteristics of others which he recognizes as characteristic of himself. He may feel that others behave in certain ways for the same reason that he does. His fears, joys, and feelings of sympathy are his basis for understanding similar emotional responses of others, provided he has the capacity to give of himself to others—to show empathy for others.

If the child views himself as a competent person in group activities, he will tend to approach them eagerly. If he feels that he can be a leader of his peers (and a follower in certain situations), if he feels that he can play a role successfully in various activities, and if he is beginning to understand his strengths and weaknesses and has not developed negative feelings about them, then he, typically, will approach others in a positive manner.

On the other hand, if antisocial behavior and attitudes such as bullying others, not taking turns, intolerance, and discrimination against minority groups are in evidence, these may indicate the development of an unwholesome self-concept. If such is the case, the teacher should plan for the child's participation in dramatic play, construction, discussion, and other activities so that he can learn to work with others in a manner satisfying to himself and to the group. Many successful and satisfying experiences with others tend to help the child develop a more positive concept of his potentialities. In turn, the child's behavior, typically, will show improvement because he will view his role in group activities in a more constructive manner. In short, it seems that children with an unwholesome self-concept tend to work in negative ways with others, while children with more socially mature self-concepts get along better with others.

The child's self-concept changes as he has new experiences and reorganizes his perception of himself. As children take part in social experiences they play new roles, gain greater insight into their strengths and weaknesses, and develop new values. Some will grow in self-understanding more rapidly than others; some will be more objective than others; and some will accept themselves with more "emo-

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[10] For a detailed discussion see Jersild, *Child Psychology* (4th ed.), 1954; and D. Snygg and A. W. Combs, *Individual Behavior*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949; and A. T. Jersild, *In Search of Self*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952.

tional grace" than others. But each will be building up a picture of himself and his potentialities which will greatly condition his relationships with others.

The child's feelings play a major role in his development of a self-concept. Many satisfying experiences with others are essential so that the child can think of himself as a successful member of the group. A series of failures typically leads to a lack of confidence and a tendency to feel inferior in certain situations. Whether the experience is a success or a failure, each child needs to express his feelings and to consider his behavior in the light of the feelings involved. To be sure, there must be self-control to safeguard the welfare of others and to avoid "emotional license." But guilt feelings about one's emotions, or denial of feelings, or the persistent hiding of one's feelings, should be avoided. The teacher, by listening and showing sincere respect and concern for each child, can be of assistance in guiding the child to better understand his feelings and to accept emotions as a normal aspect of experiences. As the child grows in his ability to understand, to accept, and to respect his own feelings, he will develop a clearer and more wholesome self-concept. Increasing self-control and socially acceptable self-direction will be related outcomes of such growth.

As children mature, they need to develop increasingly more realistic attitudes of self-acceptance as well as self-understanding. Self-understanding and self-acceptance are closely related; they involve an awareness of one's strengths and weaknesses, the ability to face reality whether favorable or unfavorable, the ability to adjust when the environment cannot (or should not) be changed, and a willingness to benefit from self-criticism and the criticisms of others.

There is evidence to indicate that realistic self-acceptance is related to acceptance of others. For example, Trent [11] reported that Negro children with positive attitudes toward themselves were friendly rather than hostile toward other Negroes and toward whites; those with rejecting self-attitudes tended to reject other Negro children and white children. Similarly, self-understanding appears to be related to understanding of others. Thus Norman [12] reported a relationship between the ability to rate oneself and to rate others, and

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[11] R. Trent, *The Correlates of Self-Acceptance Among Negro Children.* Doctoral Study, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953.

[12] R. D. Norman, "The Interrelationships Among Acceptance-Rejection, Self-Other Identity, Insight Into Self, and Realistic Perception of Others," *Journal of Social Psychology,* 37:205-237, 1953.

Sears [13] reported that individuals who are less aware of certain undesirable traits within themselves tended to rate others more harshly than did individuals with greater insight into themselves. It appears that the old dictum *Know thyself*, when coupled with *Accept yourself* and *Be yourself*, is a sound guideline to the improvement of social competence.

We can gain considerable insight into the child's self-concept through planned observation and study of his behavior in various activities. Guiding questions such as the following should be kept in mind: Is the child coming to view himself as a successful working member of the group? Is he confident in group situations? Does he look upon himself as a follower or a leader, or sometimes as one then the other? What role does he take in dramatic play, discussion, and other group activities? What does he believe to be his strengths and weaknesses, and how does he feel about them? We also should note the child's expression of feelings in art work, dramatic play, discussion, and spontaneous remarks. Through small group discussion and interviews it is possible to get clues to the child's concept of himself by making a statement such as, "I understand you feel like this . . ." and then encouraging him to continue. Or, we may complete the sentence, stating how we think he feels, and have him add to it, alter it, or correct it. Leading questions such as "What did you think was right to do? What do you like (or dislike) most about yourself?" are also helpful with more mature children. Above all, we must create a permissive atmosphere in which children can and will express themselves. And we must demonstrate an acceptance of, and interest in, each child and his feelings and thus free him to share with us what inner concepts and values really "make him tick."

The foregoing guidelines are of basic importance in all phases of the social studies program. There are two major instructional tasks, however, that require additional attention: the development of *attitudes* and *understandings*.

GUIDING THE CHILD'S DEVELOPMENT OF ATTITUDES

Children's attitudes are acquired tendencies to respond in a certain way toward persons, groups, and objects.[14] They may be positive

[13] R. R. Sears, "Experimental Studies of Projection: I. Attribution of Traits," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 7:151-163, 597-598, 1936.

[14] G. M. Blair, R. S. Stewart, and R. H. Simpson, *Educational Psychology*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1954, pp. 192-203.

or negative, and they are learned through experiences that pack an emotional punch. They serve as emotional drives to behavior, and may facilitate or inhibit learning.[15] For example, the child with a favorable attitude toward an object typically approaches it more eagerly than does a child with an unfavorable attitude.

Attitudes are deep-lying learnings based on experiences, and are part of the child's self-concept. They condition what the child sees, reads, and hears; they also affect how he feels about what he sees, reads, and hears. Thus some children may see a threat to their own status and have hostile feelings when they meet a newcomer, while others have more positive feelings because they see newcomers in a different light. Because attitudes condition what children see, read, and hear, some children find reinforcement for attitudes they possess by noticing or perceiving only certain aspects of behavior in others. Individuals "who are always looking for trouble" illustrate this point very well.

Attitudes develop in several ways.[16] Some develop gradually as a result of a series of experiences; a favorable attitude toward a minority group may develop because of happy play experiences with individuals in the group. Other attitudes develop as a result of a single vivid experience; hostility toward a minority group may result from a fight. Children learn or "take on" many attitudes from association with their parents, their peers, and persons in the community whom they admire and respect. Expressions of attitudes made by parents and individuals in groups in which children seek status are particularly potent. Unless the child accepts their attitudes, he is usually rejected. Some specific attitudes, such as hostility toward a child in a minority group, may develop because of a general attitude that has been "picked up" toward the minority group. Some attitudes result from an association made between poor conditions in which people live and traits or qualities which they possess.[17] Thus some individuals who visit slums associate laziness, or lack of cleanliness, with those who live in slum areas and begin the development of a negative attitude. Some attitudes are developed or changed as the child identifies himself with

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[15] American Association of School Administrators, *Educating for American Citizenship*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1954, pp. 210-230.

[16] Ross Stagner, "Attitudes," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (W. S. Monroe, Ed.). New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950, pp. 77-84; and D. B. Harris, "How Children Learn Interests, Motives, and Attitudes," *Learning and Instruction*, Forty-ninth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950, pp. 129-155.

[17] C. B. Stendler and W. E. Martin, *Intergroup Education in Kindergarten-Primary Grades*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953, pp. 4-18.

persons and incidents in motion pictures, TV and radio programs, and reading materials. The nature of the child's personality conditions his acceptance and expression of attitudes. Insecure, distrustful, and resentful children appear to have more prejudices than do secure, happy children.

It is not possible to develop attitudes or to change them by any rule-of-thumb procedure. Many approaches must be used as a given group is studied and individual needs of children are discovered.

Helping children achieve wholesome adjustment is of first importance. In the Detroit study, emotional adjustment was found to be the key to the improvement of civic attitudes in many instances.[18] Others have reported that negative attitudes are more prevalent among maladjusted children than among well-adjusted children.[19] Conditions within school must be such that children are not put on the defensive, are not antagonized, and are not put under undue emotional strain.[20] Wholesome attitudes grow out of emotionally satisfying experiences, and their development flourishes in situations in which children can make satisfying emotional adjustment. The teacher, therefore, should be alert to evidences of good and poor adjustment and should work actively to improve the adjustment of children as needs arise.

Through the many and varied experiences provided in the social studies, the teacher can guide children into activities in which they can *earn* prestige, feel secure, develop a feeling of *belongingness*, cooperate with others, give and take, and learn to share. Group influences, which are potent in the development of attitudes, can be used constructively to build standards, improve behavior, and redirect negative feelings toward others into positive channels. Children can actually *live* certain attitudes as they work together. For example, if a child needs to learn respect for others, opportunities can be provided to show respect in daily activities, to observe it in his peers, and learn about its significance in the lives of others as well as his own. When children work with others in an atmosphere of mutual respect and acceptance, they experience feelings of satisfaction and thus learn emotionally that an attitude of respect for others is worth while. Detailed suggestions for guiding this type of group work are given in Chapter 6.

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[18] E. F. Pflieger and G. I. Weston, *Emotional Adjustment: A Key to Good Citizenship*. Detroit: Wayne University, 1953.

[19] D. B. Harris, H. G. Gough, and W. E. Martin, "*Children's Ethnic Attitudes: I. Relationship to Certain Personality Factors.*" *Child Development*, 21:83-91, 1950.

[20] A. T. Jersild and Associates, *Child Development and the Curriculum*, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946, pp. 118-119.

Los Angeles

What attitudes might be involved in situations such as this one in which problems of sharing and taking turns arise? How might such situations be utilized to improve attitudes?

The behavior of those who guide children must reflect positive attitudes. Parents and teachers need to know their own attitudes; they must be careful about remarks that are made, facial grimaces, expressions of likes and dislikes, anecdotes and jokes that are told, and any other evidences of negative attitudes—since children are quick to imitate and take on such behavior as their own. When children themselves exhibit such behavior, they must be guided to express themselves in positive ways. Acceptance of such behavior by the teacher may be taken as tacit approval. Continuous emphasis upon and commendation of positive expression of attitudes toward others is imperative.

Knowledge and understanding properly learned and used, not just memorized, can lead to an improvement of attitudes.[21] All of us have heard someone say, "Had I known that, I would have acted differently." Or, "Is that so? Then we must do this." A common error,

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[21] American Association of School Administrators, *Educating for American Citizenship*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1954, pp. 215-229.

however, in utilizing knowledge to improve attitudes is the assumption that telling is teaching, or that learning about something inevitably leads to a proper attitude toward it. This error can be avoided in part by centering the gathering of information in key problems as they arise, and by using information to interpret the behavior of others and to solve emotionally charged problems. In addition, children need guidance in interpreting facts in the light of sound values and ideals. In short, information must be put to use and interpreted in situations vital to children if any change in attitudes is to result.

Community activities should be viewed as a part of the attitude-building program. Firsthand participation by children in community activities, cooperation of parents and other adults in developing positive attitudes, use of resource persons in the school program, and use of community resources by the school are illustrative of the many possibilities. (See Chapter 8). Festivals, pageants, holidays, and special events in which individuals of many different backgrounds participate are helpful. The spirit in which such enterprises are carried on and the skill with which children are made a part of them determine their contribution to attitudinal changes. Properly utilized, they help to promote attitudes of loyalty, respect for others, and ideals of patriotism.

Symbolism and ceremony have been used down through the ages to develop ideals and attitudes. When developed meaningfully with children, and approached in a way that develops clear insight into their significance, the following have been found to be helpful: flag ceremonies, observance of holidays, pledges and codes, pageants, assemblies, musical programs that emphasize patriotism, exhibits, special TV and radio programs, trips to historical shrines, anniversaries, films and film strips, and recordings. The foregoing contribute to the development of attitudes and ideals to the extent that children identify themselves with them and appreciate their significance in their own lives and in the lives of others. The point also must be made that the manner in which adults approach and participate in such activities greatly conditions the child's learning.

As children mature they tend to accept attitudes that seem to be the result of their own thinking.[22] They need many opportunities to discover positive examples on their own. Discussion, group planning, group decision making, creative expression, actual participation in ceremonies and community activities, and other skillfully guided enterprises may be used to help them make discoveries that are their own.

[22] Blair, Stewart and Simpson, *op. cit.*, pp. 204-205.

Follow-up activities should be provided in which their discoveries can be applied, evaluated, and used again.

Experiences designed to kindle the imagination, to create upbuilding emotional responses, to arouse positive feelings, should not be overlooked. Poetry, stories, drama, other types of literature, motion pictures, folk games, art, music, and other aesthetic experiences can be used to create a *feeling tone* that gives warmth, vibrance, and other positive emotional reactions to ideals and attitudes. Unless such feelings are developed, learning of a permanent nature will not be secured. This is one of the major reasons why related experiences in art, music, literature and the like are so important in the social studies.

Individual and group guidance techniques need to be used in some instances to develop wholesome attitudes and to redirect behavior into more positive channels.[23] Individual counseling and small-group discussion can be utilized as individual needs are discovered. Presentation of problem situations for group analysis, and completion by the group of a story begun by the teacher are effective with the entire class if related to problems that have arisen. Group standards and codes of behavior developed prior to field trips, interviews, and programs help to guide expression of attitudes in a positive way. Simple attitude inventories can be used as a basis for individual counseling and group discussion. Case conferences in which a particular child's difficulties are analyzed by the teacher and other school workers are helpful in unusual or extremely difficult cases. In some instances, specialists may need to be called in to assist in the development of a long-term program of therapy. Whenever such techniques are used, they should be tied in with on-going learning experiences, related to specific problems of children, and personalized.

Activities such as dramatic play and role-playing afford children opportunities to improve attitudes, release tension, identify themselves with others, and find a positive role in group activities. Children may be guided to try new attitudes toward others as roles are played, and they may gradually be helped to take on more positive attitudes, or reject negative ones. An incident involving a negative attitude may be "acted out," discussed, and re-enacted in a positive way. Or, after discussion of an incident, a positive portrayal of a solution may be tried. Or, through role-playing, a problem situation may be dramatized creatively with a solution emerging as children portray what to them seems fair and reasonable. Or, children may act out roles in

[23] Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Guidance in the Curriculum.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1955, pp. 50-76.

Alameda County

Through dramatic play children reveal inner thoughts and feelings as they play different roles. What attitudes toward home and family life might be revealed in a situation such as this? What should the teacher's reaction be to differences in attitudes?

preparation for a situation they are about to face. Or other situations may be dramatized depending upon the attitudes or problems needing emphasis. Meanwhile, the teacher observes analytically to secure clues as to children's feelings, needs, and values. These clues form the basis for discussion, planning, evaluation and follow-up activities.

Different roles should be taken by children. They should not play the same role every time, so that the feelings of others in given situations will become more real to them, and the needs, problems, joys, and sorrows of others will be brought closer.[24] Thus a child with one background can play the role of another, a leader can be a follower, or a child in one situation can take the part of a child in another. In selecting roles, a child should not be given one for which he is unfitted, or which he is unwilling to try. Emphasis throughout should

[24] *Ibid.*, pp. 75-76.

be upon a sincere expression of the roles being enacted so that each child gets close to the feelings of the characters he portrays at different times. Once the child grasps how others feel, he is inclined to take on more positive attitudes toward them.

Certain procedures are helpful in dealing with examples of prejudice and negative incidents found in reading materials, films, or reports of experiences made by children. After summarizing the incident and noting the main details, possible causes should be discussed and effects upon the parties involved should be considered. Children should try to develop a feeling for the other fellow, "to get inside his shoes." The solution (or a proposed solution) should be evaluated in the light of fairness, respect for the persons involved, and other pertinent values. Specific relationships to situations in the children's own lives should be clarified. Finally, immediate application of generalizations should be made by the group to situations that are vital to them. In short, the problem-solving process outlined in Chapter 6 should be used to improve attitudes as human relations problems arise.

Each unit of work offers opportunities to develop wholesome attitudes toward others. For example, units on the Home and Family can be developed so that children discover many likenesses and common needs, and, at the same time, understand differences among families in size, composition, types of homes, work of fathers, work of mothers, church affiliations, and the like. Yet each family is important, necessary, and vital to its members. Children can be helped to understand that what is natural to them may be queer to others, and what is queer to them is natural to others. Each family wants to be respected and accepted by others, just as the child wants his own family to be accepted.

In units on Our Community, children can begin to understand and accept differences among people around them and their interdependence. Emphasis should be given to understandings and appreciations such as the following: Different types of work and services are essential. We share many different things together (parks, playgrounds, stores), and all have a responsibility to make the community a good place in which to live. Many different kinds of people live and work together in our community, and share what they make with different kinds of people in other communities. Rules must be made and followed so that all may have justice and equal chances. Communities vary and depend upon each other for food, shelter, and clothing. Ideas and contributions of one community are shared with others. There is really no one best kind of community although we

may prefer one kind. The many different kinds of communities (farming, fishing, manufacturing) enable us to share and live more effectively in our own.

Units on Our State, Region, or Nation provide children with an opportunity to discover the contributions of others, the common needs, the great range of differences, examples of sharing and the like on a wider scale. Strength through diversity, power through teamwork, and unity through democratic values should be brought home realistically as reading materials, films, pictures, and other resources are used. A solid beginning can be made in developing appreciation of the contributions of great people of varying ancestry and background, interdependence among regions, respect for the supreme worth of the individual, and the need for people of varying capabilities. The efforts of many to preserve and extend the rights and opportunities of all people from early days down to the present should be given dramatic emphasis.

Units on Mexico, South American Countries, Africa, or other cultures, should be developed in such a way that quaint, bizarre, exotic, and rare objects and persons are not the main emphasis. The significant ways of living of a people should be considered in the light of present conditions, the traditions and environment of the people. Children should be guided to discover and understand why differences and likenesses exist, to identify themselves with the people and their problems, and to appreciate the attempts that have been made to solve these problems. The need for education, housing, hospitals and the like cannot be overlooked; this should be understood in the light of conditions, past developments, and current efforts that are being made to provide them. The rosy, gay, travel bureau picture of village life must be tempered by facts that are realistic and descriptive, yet not disparaging. Invidious comparisons, ridicule, and jesting should be avoided by giving emphasis to what actually exists and why it exists. Unique ways of doing things can then be appreciated in a more meaningful setting.

Certain points should be observed in all units of work. If children have gained poor impressions or had unfavorable contacts with others, teachers should provide wholesome contacts and opportunities to observe others under favorable conditions. Emphasis should be given to the understanding that members of minority groups are human beings, too, with feelings, wants, and problems similar to our own. Interpretation and explanation of negative instances and conditions may be used to help children understand that behavior is *caused;* a

Alameda County

Children must go beyond simply learning about the contributions of others; they should appreciate and understand the value of differences—strength through diversity—in our country. What attitudes and appreciations might be involved in the planning and arrangement of a display such as this?

change in causes leads to a change in behavior. Reasons for differences that seem queer can usually be found in traditions, customs, special needs, and conditions. Reality here and now, such as living conditions of certain minority groups which lead some to develop prejudices, should not be overlooked by idealizing the faraway; reasons for the conditions and efforts to overcome them must be explored. Individuals from minority groups should not be favored or exalted even though their unique contributions are appreciated. All need acceptance and understanding, but not at the expense of others. Stereotypes, misconceptions, erroneous ideas, unintended jibes and the like in reading materials, films and other resources, must be checked critically and clarified. Children themselves can learn to make critical analyses and suggest positive examples. Field trips should be carried out to obtain ideas and understanding, not just "to go slumming." When spokesmen representative of different groups come to discuss questions and topics, they should be received as experts, not as curiosities; their nationality should be regarded as incidental. Problem-solving skills should be used systematically, and critical-thinking abilities encouraged. Children who are experienced in analyzing problems fairly are not so prone to accept stereotyped and negative attitudes. Finally, emphasis on democratic behavior and values as outlined in Chapter 1, and social attitudes in group work as outlined in Chapter 6, should be a part of each unit of work and daily living in the classroom.

GUIDING THE CHILD'S DEVELOPMENT OF CONCEPTS AND GENERALIZATIONS

The development of clear concepts and generalizations is essential to clear thinking, problem solving, and effective group action. Hazy meanings can lead only to hazy thinking. Problems cannot be attacked and solved if a person does not have a grasp of the factors and ideas involved. Communication with others is impossible if the specific meanings of various terms are not clear. Group action breaks down if inadequate understanding of issues and problems is present. Concept-building is a primary problem of those who guide the learning of children in the elementary school.[25]

This problem is of special significance in the social studies because of the complex ideas and meanings involved in human relationships. The understandings involved in such units as The Home,

[25] John U. Michaelis, "Current Problems of Elementary Teachers in the Social Studies," *Social Studies*, 38:221-225, May, 1947.

Community, Our State, Early American Life, Mexico, Africa, Aviation, and Communication are diverse and varied. Each unit has special concepts of its own that children must understand and develop if meaningful learning is to take place. These concepts are encountered in discussion, reading, audio-visual materials, and in the many different activities in each unit of work. In addition, the different backgrounds of experience which children possess make for differing interpretations, differing insights, and varying misconceptions.

WORDS, CONCEPTS, AND GENERALIZATIONS

Brownell and Hendrickson [26] point out that a distinction should be made between arbitrary associations, concepts, and generalizations. Arbitrary associations are simply the terms or names given to various items or qualities, such as *red*, *paper*, *Mississippi*. Such terms are taught through meaningful association and repetitive practice, so that children can use them accurately and quickly. Children should be given help as errors arise, meanings of terms should be clarified, practice should be provided, and maintenance should be brought about through functional use.

Concepts are on a higher mental level than are arbitrary associations. Brownell and Hendrickson state that a concept is "more than a 'word' "—it is an abstraction that "applies to a class or group of objects which have certain qualities in common." [27] While arbitrary associations apply to a particular object, concepts apply to a class of objects. Thus, *mountains* as a concept refers to a general class of objects and not to a particular object.[28] The child's understanding of *mountains* depends upon the experiences he has had, ways in which he has distinguished mountains from hills, differentiations he has made between various ranges of mountains, and so forth. In the social studies, in addition to such concepts as *mountains*, *plains*, and *rivers*, there are more intangible concepts, such as *democracy*, *tolerance*, and *cooperation*, that are generally more difficult for children to grasp.

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[26] W. A. Brownell and G. Hendrickson, "How Children Learn Information, Concepts and Generalizations," *Learning and Instruction*, Forty-ninth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1949, pp. 92-128.

[27] *Ibid.*, p. 106. (Quoted by permission of the Society.)

[28] Brownell and Hendrickson (*op. cit.*, p. 106) state that it is difficult to draw sharp distinctions between them. However, as arbitrary associations such as *river* or *town* take on meaning and the child is able to apply them to a class of objects, they are properly called concepts. Thus the major differences appear to be applicability to a single object or class of objects, extent of meaning involved, and degree of abstraction.

The meaning of a given concept will vary from no meaning on the one hand to rather full and rich meaning on the other.[29] The degree of meaning a given child possesses depends upon the richness of his experiences and upon his maturity. Furthermore, concept-building is a gradual process in which increasingly higher levels of development, coupled with rich experiences, bring about steady growth of meaning. For example, a five-year-old's concept of *cooperation* (even though the term is not used) may mean sharing toys and tools with others. In Grade I, he may discover that two or three boys and girls working together can make things for the playhouse more effectively than can one child working alone. Later he may extend his concept of cooperation as he learns about people working together in the community in building houses, transporting goods, and keeping the community clean. Many insights and meanings will come from working with other boys and girls in dramatic play, games, and group activities. As other lands and peoples are studied, the child may discover ways in which individuals in other places work together to secure food, shelter, and clothing. Still later, the meaning of cooperation as a factor in world peace may emerge as a basic concept, or a generalization, in international planning.[30]

Generalizations are typically on a still higher mental level than are concepts. Brownell and Hendrickson state that a generalization is "any verbalized formulation of a relationship which is of broad applicability." [31] Thus generalizations may be laws, rules, principles, conclusions, inferences, and the like. Examples in the social studies are:

> People adapt themselves to conditions in the environment.
>
> People secure food, clothing, and shelter from the resources in their environment.
>
> Increasing interdependence among the people of the world has brought about a need for international institutions.

Generalizations involve the relationships between concepts, according to Brownell and Hendrickson, and they grow out of problem solving carried on by the learner.[32] As children attack various problems, they discover relationships between concepts and they begin to form a generalization. As new situations arise and similar relationships are encountered, the generalization takes more definite form and becomes more clearly developed.

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[29] *Ibid.*

[30] The distinction between concept and generalization is not sharp in this instance.

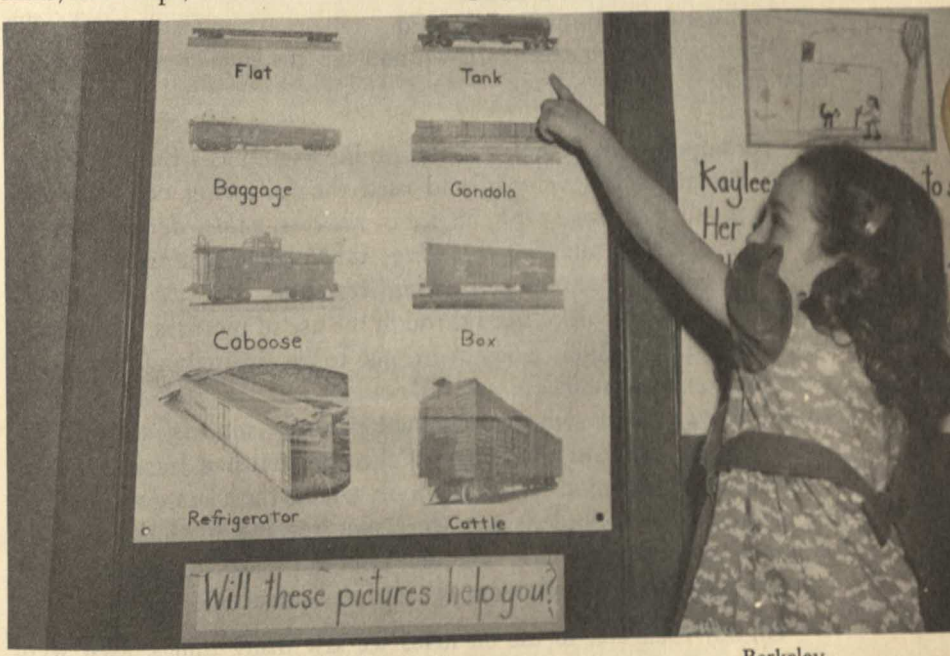
[31] *Ibid.*, p. 117. (Quoted by permission of the Society.)

[32] *Ibid.*, p. 119.

PROCEDURES FOR DEVELOPING CONCEPTS AND GENERALIZATIONS

The development of concepts and generalizations requires a program of guided problem-solving experiences for children. Because concepts and generalizations are abstract and largely verbal, children need many opportunities to use them and to express them in discussion, dramatic play, reporting, and writing. Guidance should be given in problem solving so that children themselves discover relationships and thereby form generalizations. Children also need to encounter the same concepts and generalizations at succeedingly higher levels of development so that they can extend, enrich, and deepen the meanings involved in them.

An effective approach to concept building is to consider the specific experiences in a given unit of work and to determine the concepts and understandings that are of vital significance. Their value may be determined by the frequency of their use in the unit, the needs for their use which arise in class, and the misconceptions which children reveal. Thus, concepts which are needed in reading materials, films, field trips, construction, dramatic play, discussion, and other ex-



Berkeley

How can you use pictures to develop the meanings of various terms?

periences should be noted and developed as shown in the following examples.

In a unit on The Farm, a group of primary children developed and used such concepts as *silo*, *corral*, *feeding*, *milking*, *brush*, *bottle*, *calf*, *seeds*, *garden*, *barn*, *chute*, *hay*, *fodder* through visiting a dairy farm to see a *silo*, *corral*, *barn*, and the *feeding* and *milking* of cows; engaging in and discussing dramatic play related to *chores* on the farm; constructing and using *corrals* and *barns* in dramatic play; collecting *seeds*, planting them, and caring for a *garden;* finding out how *plants* grow with different types of *soil* and varying amounts of sunshine and water; reading and listening to stories related to life on the farm; expressing group and individual experiences through art, rhythms, discussion, group chart making, and songs; and seeing a film and slides on farm life. All of the foregoing were used in connection with significant questions in the unit.

Some illustrative generalizations which grew out of these experiences as expressed by children were:

We get milk and food from farms.
Farmers help us in lots of ways.
Life is different on a farm.
You get up early and work hard.
Farmers sell their stuff in town and use the money to buy things they need.

An upper grade group in a unit on Petroleum as a Basic Industry in the Community developed and used the following concepts: *refinery*, *pipeline*, *storage tank*, *oil wells*, *tankers*, *cable*, *derrick*, *diesel*, *pulley*, *processing*, *refining*, *retailing*, *wholesaling*, *industry*, *driller*, *drilling*, *gasoline*, *butane*, *petroleum*, *kerosene*, and *walking beam.* The foregoing were developed through the use of pictures, excursions, reading, and discussion. They were put to use in making murals, in construction, in discussion, and in reading. At the end of the unit an exhibit was made which contained pictures, models, and objects illustrative of many of the concepts the children had learned. Many of the terms were used in a scrapbook which the class developed as a group project. Included in it were pictures and brief descriptions of the many different things the children had learned while the unit was under way. The following excerpt is illustrative:

On our excursion to the oil fields we saw many things. Men were drilling a well. A new steel derrick was being built to pump oil from the ground. Large field tanks had been built to store the oil. Many oil trucks

Los Angeles

How do firsthand experiences in processing materials help to develop accurate concepts?

stood by to be loaded at the loading rack. Railroad tracks had been laid so that the tank cars could come up to load oil.

Some illustrative generalizations developed by children in this unit were:

Many machines are used in producing gas and oil.
Refining and selling oil is big business.
Many workers are needed to get oil from the field to the gas station.
Petroleum products are used in many industries.
Oil is produced in many other places besides the United States.

Group sharing of experiences through discussion, reporting, and story-telling aids in concept building; use should also be made of pictures, models, and objects to clarify specific meanings. Children who have taken trips to places being studied can tell about them and share pictures and photographs with the class. Materials brought by children that relate to concepts in the unit can be discussed, demonstrated, and used to increase understanding. For example, during a study of Mexico one child brought *pottery*, *clothing*, and *jewelry*. In a study of China, two children brought and demonstrated the use

of the *ehru*, *temple bells*, and a *gong* which had been loaned by their parents. Another child brought a series of pictures on Chinese boats and pointed out the differences between *junks*, *sampans*, and other types of Chinese boats.

Various shades of meaning can be developed through the use of materials drawn from literature, rhythms, art, and music. A reading of stirring tales of Daniel Boone extends the meaning of *scout*, *defending the fort*, and *adventures of early explorers*. Records of songs sung by the pioneers as they trekked westward, and carefully selected pictures which depict the joys, sorrows, hopes, aspirations and tragedies of the pioneers as they established homes and towns, give overtones of feeling to terms such as *husking bees*, *clearing*, *attack*, *homemaking*, *hardship*, *courageous*, and *fearless* that can be secured in no other way. Similarly, folk dances give children an opportunity to develop clearer understanding of the ways in which the pioneers enjoyed themselves and secured recreation. Such qualitative aspects of concept building must not be overlooked.

Children need opportunities in each unit to enrich and extend concepts that they have previously encountered, as well as to develop new ones. For example, in a well-planned study of Colonial and Pioneer Life, such new concepts as these will be learned: *town meeting*, *dame schools*, *church services*, *food*, *clothing*, *candle-making*, *ways of travel*, *utensils*, and *weapons*. At the same time, children should extend and enrich their understanding of the ways in which the early Americans met their needs for *food*, *shelter*, and *clothing*. They should also extend their concepts of such basic social functions as *transportation*, *communications*, *conservation*, *education*, and *recreation*. In addition, they should gain increased insight into *adaptation* to the *environment*, uses of *natural resources*, and *cooperative action* to meet common needs.

Attention must be given to the development of specific concepts as experiences are developed. Activities carried on without discussion of purposes, planning, clarification of problems, and evaluation and reflection upon relationships to past experience and future action have little value. One child illustrated this point very well during an activity involving construction designed to develop concepts of a Mexican bazaar. In reply to a query as to what he was making, he said: "I'm just nailing boards to this box." He had not "been in on" the planning, discussion, and evaluation of the bazaar for use in the study of Mexico. In terms of his experiences he was truly just nailing boards. Concept-building experiences must be designed and guided to develop specific

meanings and the child must be included in planning and evaluation. For example, one class, during a visit to the harbor, clarified the meaning of *breakwater*, *warehouses*, *channels*, *pilot boat*, *tug*, *fire boat*, and *barge*. Another class saw a film on wheat farming for the specific purpose of learning about *plows*, *harrows*, *cultivators*, *seeders*, *tractors*, *combines*, and *granaries*. One group used pictures to clarify the meaning of *serape*, *reboso*, and *sombrero*. Another class used stereographs that showed *glaciers*, *plateaus*, *fjords*, and *crevasses*.

Both the number and the difficulty of the concepts must be controlled; too difficult, or too many concepts at one time may lead to misconceptions, confusion, disinterest in the topic, word-calling without meaning, and little or no comprehension. A long tedious list of ideas to check while on an excursion, during a film, or in a dictionary results in superficial learning. Giving children assignments involving concepts which are too difficult and cannot be applied by them is a type of busy-work. It is better by far to select a few basic concepts that are needed by the group, and to guide their use in a variety of meaningful activities so that real understanding is developed.

Children should be guided toward the development of basic understandings and generalizations of major importance in daily living. The statement of understandings in the sample units in the Appendix illustrates those which are frequently included in units (see pages 461 and 485-486).

In cooperation with the statewide Social Studies Committee of the California School Supervisors Association, the writer developed a statement of basic understandings, or generalizations, that may grow out of experiences in the social studies. The words "may grow" are used advisedly, because each child develops his own generalizations as a result of interaction with his environment. The teacher's role is to provide guidance in problem solving so that the development of generalizations is facilitated. The following list, then, may serve as a general guide for the development of basic understandings as children engage in experiences in various units of work. Each major understanding is followed by illustrative generalizations growing out of units developed at succeedingly higher levels of development.

BASIC UNDERSTANDINGS

A. There is a high degree of interdependence among people everywhere.
   1. Members of the family share, help, appreciate, and have responsibilities to one another, as do boys and girls in school.

2. Individuals and groups in the community carry out many responsibilities and depend upon one another.
3. Primitive people depended upon one another and upon the resources in their environment.
4. People in other places depend upon one another and upon natural resources near their homes for the satisfaction of the basic needs for food, shelter, and clothing.
5. People in other cultures have learned much from different races and have contributed much to our way of living. (Cultural interdependence.)
6. Technology, transportation, communication, production, and education are increasing man's interdependence.
7. Man is striving to develop international institutions to promote better adjustment to the high degree of interdependence that exists in the world today.

B. People make adaptations to their environment and changing conditions; they change certain aspects of their environment.
1. The family, school, and community make plans for varying conditions.
2. Primitive people make many adaptations to their environment, but relatively few changes in their environment.
3. Plants and animals make adaptations to the environment.
4. Water, land, and air influence all living things.
5. People adjust to varying conditions and settle in places as favorable as possible to the fulfillment of their basic needs.
6. Man adjusts to changes in the environment over which he has no control.
7. Technology, transportation, communication, and education give man increasing control over his environment.
8. Through the development of such social institutions as the UN and UNESCO, men are endeavoring to adjust to changing conditions in the world today.

C. People learn their ways of living through experiences with other people.
1. We learn to work, play, and do many things in the home, school and community.
2. Many common ways of doing things have developed in communities.
3. Primitive people who were separated into groups by natural barriers learned different ways of doing things.
4. Cultural interchange has resulted in many common ways of doing things and has improved our ways of living.
5. Technology, transportation, communication, and education have extended the possibility of common social experiences and progress throughout the world.

6. Many peoples are striving to secure equality of opportunity for social development in the world today.

D. Man works and uses the world's resources to satisfy his basic needs.
   1. In our homes we get shelter, clothing, security, and food.
   2. People work together in communities to secure food, shelter, clothing, protection, education, and recreation.
   3. People who spend their lives in hunting, fishing, farming, or manufacturing satisfy their needs in different ways.
   4. Many different methods and materials are used in the production and distribution of goods and services.
   5. Basic social needs are met through communication, family and group organizations, customs, laws, and institutions.
   6. Technology, transportation, communication, and education enable us to work more efficiently, to improve working conditions, and to use the world's resources more wisely.
   7. Through international cooperation, people throughout the world are working to develop new and better ways of living together.

E. People develop and improve social organizations in order to achieve a better life.
   1. We work together, develop rules, accept responsibilities, and learn many useful things in the home and school.
   2. By living in communities, states, and nations, people share many things and help each other in many ways.
   3. Primitive people formed simple social organizations in order to better their living conditions.
   4. People in other countries have formed social organizations to improve their ways of living.
   5. People develop group loyalties and values as they work together with common purposes.
   6. People secure protection for themselves by mutual agreement and by developing and changing laws, rules, and institutions.
   7. Technology, cultural interchange, and education are important factors in bringing about the need for, and promotion of, change in our institutions.
   8. Man is striving to develop international institutions that will enable him to achieve a better life in the world today.

F. Through democracy man is striving to attain greater social, economic, and political justice.
   1. In home and school we learn to work in groups, to share, and to consider the rights of others.
   2. People plan, share, and work together in the community.
   3. Some aspects of democracy were evident in primitive cultures.
   4. The foundations of democracy in our country were established by our forefathers from many lands.

5. Technology, transportation, communication, and education have extended the potentialities of democratic living throughout the world.
6. All people of the world are fundamentally equal in worth, dignity, and sovereignty of personality.
7. Equal justice, access to education, opportunity for work and fair pay, and maximum self-direction and personal-social development are possible for all in a democracy.

This chapter has emphasized basic conditions of learning that should be stressed in all phases of the program. Special attention also has been given to attitudes, concepts, and generalizations because of their importance in social learning. We will next consider ways of planning units of work that are consistent with the ideas in this chapter and in preceding chapters.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Discuss specific ways in which you can use the guidelines presented in the first part of this chapter to improve learning in the social studies. Which are most difficult to use? Which are easiest?
2. Discuss ways in which the social studies can help children to develop a wholesome self-concept.
3. Try to recall social attitudes that you developed in the elementary school or at home as a youngster. In what ways have they changed? Which of the principles suggested in this chapter were operative?
4. Discuss negative attitudes that you have observed in children. What are some possible causes of them? What are some possible steps that can be taken to improve them? How can experiences in the social studies be utilized to improve them?
5. Discuss with an experienced teacher some of the attitudes toward other children, minority groups, and care of property that are of major concern at the present time. What appear to be the causes of them? What principles and techniques are helpful in improving them? Which of the techniques suggested in this chapter have been used?
6. Discuss the techniques outlined in this chapter for building concepts and generalizations. In what ways can you use them? How can you prevent misconceptions from developing?
7. Recall misconceptions that you have corrected during recent years. How did you correct them? How could they have been prevented from developing? Which of the principles and procedures suggested in this chapter were operative?
8. Discuss concept building with an experienced teacher. What pro-

cedures are most helpful? Which of the procedures suggested in this chapter have been used?

9. Discuss the generalizations outlined at the end of this chapter. Outline specific and practical ways in which you can contribute to their development in a unit of work of your choice.

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5

PLANNING UNITS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A unit in the social studies may be defined as a carefully developed series of childlike experiences related to a particular topic and designed to contribute to the achievement of the purposes of the social studies. A well-planned unit involves the use of socially significant content and a variety of rich experiences such as reading, using audio-visual aids, taking excursions, constructing objects, engaging in dramatic play, processing materials, and expressing thoughts and feelings creatively through art, music, rhythms, and literature. The content of the unit may be drawn from geography, history, science, art, music, and other subject-matter fields as needed to contribute to social learning. Both the content and activities are related to specific needs, problems, and interests of children and are used in such a way that they contribute to the achievement of clearly stated purposes. The organization of experiences and materials into units facilitates the child's learning significant relationships, concepts, and processes in a given area of experience.

In a well-planned social studies program units are no longer designed in terms of isolated subject-matter areas such as Geography of Europe or History of Our State.[1] Rather, emphasis is given to dynamic aspects of living with material drawn from several fields, so that children may develop richer insights into human relationships and social processes. Representative units which accomplish this purpose carry such titles as Home Life, Living in Our Community, Colonial Living, Pioneer Life, Westward Movement, Transportation,

[1] For an analysis of the differences between subject-matter units and experience units see William H. Burton, "Implications for Organization of Instruction and Instructional Adjuncts," *Learning and Instruction*, Forty-ninth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950, pp. 221-222.

Communication, Life Study of China, and Growth of Democracy. The two sample units in the Appendix are illustrative of those developed in primary and middle grades in school systems which have outstanding programs.

CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE SOCIAL STUDIES UNITS

There are several criteria of good social studies units which should be kept in mind as units are being selected, planned, and developed. The following statement includes the major points emphasized in several different lists.[2]

Units in the social studies should contribute to the achievement of all the goals of the social studies. They should provide opportunities for the development of problem-solving skills, democratic behavior, group action skills, significant concepts and understandings, insight into social functions and processes, skill in the use of materials, and the acquisition of functional information. The specific objectives to be achieved in a given unit should be clearly stated.

Each unit should deal with an important aspect of living which is significant to children. It should have definite relationships to the needs and interests of children and should be challenging to them. It should give them increasing insight into ways in which man interacts with his environment in order to meet basic needs for food, shelter, and clothing.

The unit should be related to children's past experiences and should lead to broader interests and other significant areas of experience. It should not be an isolated segment of learning, but should contribute to the continuity of the child's learning.

The unit should be within the range of the ability of the group, be designed to meet individual differences, and provide opportunities to satisfy basic social and personal needs of children. A variety of activities, materials and modes of expression are essential in meeting individual needs. Each child should have many opportunities to make worthy contributions to the achievement of group purposes, and to work with others on significant problems.

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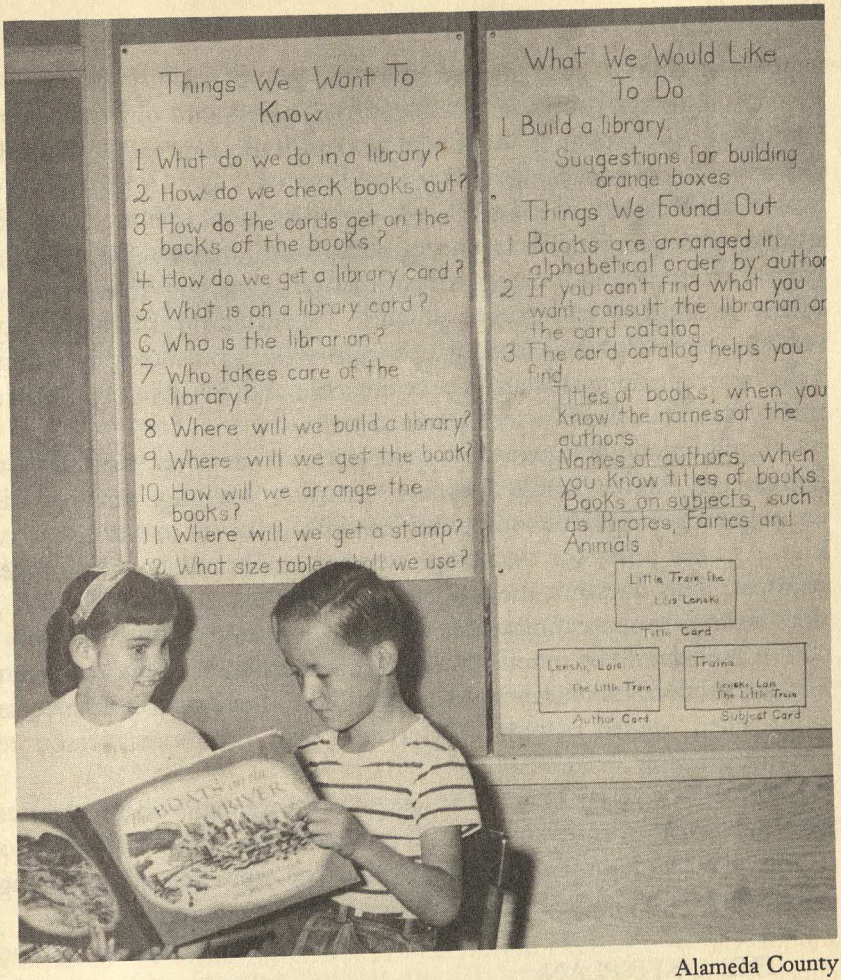
[2] For examples of criteria see H. L. Caswell and D. S. Campbell, *Curriculum Development*. New York: American Book Company, 1935, pp. 388-389; W. H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities*. New York: Appleton-Century, 1944, pp. 303-304; J. A. Hockett and W. E. Jacobsen, *Modern Practices in the Elementary School*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1943, pp. 71-72; and J. U. Michaelis, "Planning Learning Experiences in the Social Studies," *The Principal and Curriculum Building*, Twentieth Yearbook, California Elementary School Principals Association. Oakland: The Association, 1948, pp. 79-82.



Alameda County

Library skills are put to use in many different units of work. How might you use them in a unit?

The unit should provide opportunities for social interaction and the improvement of democratic group processes. Group sharing, group planning, group doing, group discussing, and group evaluating in situations involving problems of group concern are vital processes in democratic living, and should be given consideration. Opportunities for making decisions and choices in the light of democratic values and for putting plans into action must also be provided.

Each unit should provide opportunities for creative experiences. The creativeness possessed by children can be given outlets through group planning and evaluation, expression in related art, music, and dramatic play, construction, and oral and written language. Creative

expression should be provided through group activity as well as through individual activity. Poems, stories, songs, and objects created through group and individual efforts contribute a great deal to the richness of social learning.

A wide variety of materials and activities should be used in social studies units. Community resources, audio-visual materials, texts, maps, charts, art media, and materials for creative expression are illustrative of the materials used in units of work. Construction, dramatic play, reading, outlining, map making, processing of raw materials, taking field trips, planning, discussing, evaluating, and the like are illustrative of activities used in well-planned units.

Each unit should provide opportunities to develop basic skills to increasingly higher levels. Reading, listening, spelling, writing, discussing, measuring, and computing are skills involved in various activities. As need arises for their improvement, attention should be given to them. This does not mean that skills will "be dragged in," but it does mean that opportunities for their development will be utilized.

A unit should be practicable from the standpoint of available time and instructional resources. It is impossible to develop a unit successfully when needed materials, references, and community resources are not available.

In order to plan units that possess the foregoing characteristics, the teacher must know what is contained in the various sections of a unit plan, and the basic considerations or steps in unit planning. These factors will be considered in detail in this chapter.

THE UNIT PLAN

The unit plan is an outline of purposes, content, problems, activities, and materials related to a given topic.[3] It is a general guideline from which may be drawn the particular experiences that will be most profitable to a given class. The unit plan does not take the place of daily planning, but does serve as a rich storehouse of ideas, activities, and materials which may be used to facilitate planning for a particular group of children.[4]

Although there are wide variations among units in different school systems, the following major sections are typical of most of them:

[3] For a complete example, see one of the Units in the Appendix, pp. 441-513.

[4] A distinction is usually made between *resource units* and *teaching units*. Resource units are designed as a rich source of content, activities, and materials from which the teacher can select experiences for a given group. See the examples in the Appendix, pp. 441-513. Teaching unit refers to the plan which is used to teach a given unit; it contains the activities and materials to be used with a given group.

1. *The Title.* The title of the unit describes the major area of experience that is included in the unit. Titles are expressed as themes, problems, and topics, such as Growing Interdependence in the World Today, How Do We Secure Our Food, and The Farm. The topical title is frequently used in the elementary school; examples are Home and Family, Living on the Farm, Living in Our Community, Westward Movement, Latin America, Life Study of China.

2. *Background material.* This section is sometimes included as an aid to the teacher. It may be a simple outline of content, or a more detailed summary of key ideas, processes, and directions for activities.

3. *Purposes.* The purposes of the unit are usually included under such headings as attitudes, understandings, concepts, and skills. Some units present both teachers' purposes and pupils' purposes. Some units state purposes as behaviors to be developed, while others simply give a brief statement of anticipated outcomes.

4. *Initiation or approach.* This section states specific ways in which the unit can be initiated. The initiation is planned to start the unit on a series of significant experiences. Needs, problems, questions, and desires are stimulated in such a manner that each child is challenged and interested.

5. *Problems and experiences.* This section gives problems, activities, and related materials that may be used in the unit. Only those problems, activities and materials that will help to achieve the purposes of the unit should be included.

6. *Culminating activities.* This section suggests such activities for concluding or summarizing the unit as a program, playlet, exhibit, or pageant. Culminating activities are suggested in some units and not in others. Some units simply suggest leads to other ends when a given unit is ended.

7. *Evaluation.* This section suggests procedures and devices that can be used to evaluate learning throughout the unit. Examples of checklists, charts, test items, and so forth, should be included.

8. *Instructional resources.* This section lists references for children, references for the teacher, community resources, audio-visual materials, plans for construction, poems, songs, experiments, and so forth. It is a concise but complete list of resources that can be referred to quickly and easily as needs arise.

While different terms are sometimes used, the foregoing indicates the essential sections of a unit. The following excerpts, taken from a unit on Air Transportation, are illustrative of each part.

Excerpts from a Unit on Air Transportation

I. *Purposes*

A. Major understandings to be developed, such as:

1. Air transportation is influencing the ways of living of people in all parts of the world.
2. Air transportation is bringing people closer together and increasing interdependence among people throughout the world.
3. Man's ideas of travel time, distance, and travel routes are changing because of the speed of air transportation.

II. *Outline of Background Information*

A. The local airport is the center of a variety of activities and offers many services:

1. Air express is handled jointly by the airlines and Railway Express.
2. Passenger service is available to main line centers and from there to all points. Meals are provided on some flights, and thirty to forty pounds of baggage may be taken, depending on type of flight.
3. Maintenance shops, hangars, runways, control tower, fuel facilities, and an administration building are located at the airport.

III. *Initiation or Approach*

A. This unit may be started by means of an arranged environment. The following materials are to be placed in the classroom to stimulate interests, needs, and problems:

1. *Pictures.* Types of planes, buildings at the airport, a series to show changes in planes, and so forth.
2. *Maps.* Selected maps of U.S.A., air routes, and air-age maps.
3. *Books.* A library corner in which are displayed *Book of Modern Airplanes, Air Patrol,* and so forth.
4. *Models.* Planes and gliders arranged on a table.
5. *Audio-visual materials.* A set of slides on the airport will be shown.
6. Group discussion will follow exploration of the environment.

IV. *Problems and Related Experiences*

Problems or Needs	Experiences Involved
1. What are the activities of workers at the airport? a. Pilots b. Dispatchers c. Stewardesses d. Others	1. Group planning and discussion to determine ways of solving the problem and sources of information. 2. Seeing a film strip on the airport. 3. Interviewing airport workers. 4. Examining free materials from airlines.

5. Reading stories in Keliher, *Air Workers*, pp. 30-60; Pryor, *Airplane Book*, pp. 15-42.
6. Planning and taking a trip to the airport.

2. Types of airplanes
   1. Discussion of types seen at the airport.
   2. Reading in Booth, *Book of Modern Airplanes;* Whipple, *Airplanes at Work.*
   3. Examining pictures.
   4. Seeing slides on airplanes.

V. *Culmination*

A. One or more of the following culminating activities may be used:
   1. Pageant of life at the airport or development of aviation.
   2. An original play on selected portions of the unit.
   3. A program including demonstrations, discussions, brief talks, and skits using maps, pictures, models, slides, murals, etc.

VI. *Techniques of Evaluation*

A. Evaluation is a continuous, cooperative process carried on from the beginning of the unit. Suggestive means of evaluation are:
   1. Anecdotal records on cooperation, responsibility, leadership.
   2. Charts cooperatively made by the group and used in individual and group self-evaluation.
   3. Teacher observation of children as they use skills and concepts, and work cooperatively in dramatic play, construction, and so forth.

VII. *Instructional Resources*

A. Bibliography for teachers:
   1. Civil Aeronautics Administration, *Aviation Education Source Book.* New York: Hastings House, 1946.
   2. Desoutter, D. M., *All About Aircraft.* New York: John de Graff, 1955.

B. Bibliography for children:
   1. Hyde, M. O., *Flight, Today & Tomorrow.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1953.
   2. Lewellen, John, *Jet Transports.* New York: Crowell, 1955.

C. Community Resources:
   1. Field trip to the airport. Call Mr. Jones, GR 1-1102, 9:00-12:00 A.M., to make arrangements.
   2. Resource visitors such as pilots, stewardesses, and dispatchers.

D. Audio-Visual Materials:
   1. Motion pictures
      a. *Development of Transportation*, No. 290, Audio-Visual Center.
      b. *Coast to Coast by Plane*, University Audio-Visual Department.

The foregoing excerpts have been presented to clarify the meaning of various terms used in planning units, and to illustrate the type of content in each section of a unit. It should not be inferred, however, that units in all school systems follow the same pattern.[5] There is considerable variation among both unit plans and terminology in current use throughout the country. Nevertheless, the terms and outline presented above do include the essential elements and meanings needed in unit planning. Let us now consider the major phases of unit planning essential to the preparation of a unit.

ESSENTIAL CONSIDERATIONS IN UNIT PLANNING

Selecting a Unit. Units are selected in various ways in school systems at the present time.[6] Probably the most effective procedure is that in which a framework for the social studies has been designed, suggested units are proposed for different grades, and teachers select within this framework with reference to the needs of children in their classes. This procedure prevents repetition, promotes the procuring of materials for specific units, and prevents the selection of insignificant units. A second procedure, not so widely used as the preceding one, is the selection of units by the teacher and children on the basis of immediate needs and interests of the group. This plan has certain merits but in the hands of inexpert teachers it results in repetition, selection of insignificant units, omission of important units, and failure to build up a rich stock of instructional materials, including audio-visual aids, that can be used throughout the school system. Among other plans in use for selecting units is that in which basic textbooks set the pattern, and units are built around them. This plan greatly limits learning possibilities, for it is unsound to permit a text, or series of texts, to determine the curriculum.

[5] See the units in the Appendix, pp. 441-513.

[6] For a good discussion see Ruth G. Strickland, *How to Build a Unit of Work*. Washington, D.C.: United States Office of Education, 1946.

It should be emphasized that in selecting and planning a unit, growth characteristics and needs of children in the group should be kept in mind. Needs and past experiences of children can be determined through observation, analysis of cumulative records, and consultation with former teachers, the principal, and supervisors. Special attention should be given to reading levels, oral and written language abilities, previous units of work, individual interests and needs, and socio-economic backgrounds. Standards of living, customs, and mores in home, neighborhood, and community give clues to needed emphases, misconceptions, and values of the group. If a resource unit is being planned and the teacher is unacquainted with the class (preplanning prior to the opening of school), the growth characteristics [7] of children at the level for which the unit is being planned should be reviewed.

Building a Rich Background of Experience. An essential step in the planning of units after the topic is selected is the building of a rich background of experience by the teacher himself. Units developed by others should be studied for suggestions. Texts, pamphlets, and references available for children, and background materials for the teacher should be read and annotated. Audio-visual materials should be previewed, and notes should be made regarding their contributions to the unit. If time permits, community resources should be checked, trips should be taken to those places in the community that may be used for excursions, and interviews should be held with potential resource visitors. Pictures, photographs, maps, sketches, charts, and diagrams should be collected and filed with notations regarding their use in the unit. Some teachers have found it helpful to take pictures for use in the unit. Industrial arts processes, experiments, and demonstrations should be tried out. Collections should be made of songs, records, poems, stories, paintings, and realia. Weapons, utensils, clothing, and other realia should be secured. If they are unavailable, the teacher should endeavor to get pictures of them and to see them in a museum. An annotated bibliography containing children's references, teacher's references, and audio-visual materials should be compiled. An outline of basic content and activities should be prepared. Now the teacher is ready to do specific planning for a given class or for children at a given level. To try to write a unit plan without a rich background of information is wasteful of time and energy.

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[7] See Chapter 3.

STATING PURPOSES. After a rich background has been built by the teacher, specific purposes should be set in accordance with the needs and maturity of the children for whom the unit is intended. Types of questions that must be answered are: "What can the group accomplish in this unit?" "How can this unit make specific, practical contributions to the goals of the social studies?" "What specific understandings and concepts can children at this level develop?" "What behaviors can be developed?" In answering these questions the teacher should state purposes that are practical, to the point, worth while, attainable by the children, consistent with the goals of the social studies, and that lead to improvement in behavior and can be evaluated. General purposes, such as *improvement of character*, *better thinking*, and *appreciation of our country*, have little value. Purposes must be tied down specifically to the problems that exist in the unit. For exam-

Los Angeles

Direct, purposeful experiences, such as weaving, add to children's appreciation and understanding of ways of living of others. What direct experiences might you provide in a unit you are planning?

ple, the following excerpt of purposes related to understandings to be developed in an upper grade unit on air transportation are clear and to the point:

Basic understandings:

Air transportation is bringing the people of the world closer together.

Different types of aircraft are used to transport goods and people, to protect forests, and to conserve crops.

People can easily exchange goods in all parts of the world by means of air transportation.

Man's ideas of travel time, distance, and travel routes are changing because of the speed of air transportation.

People throughout the world must learn to work together in planning and controlling the use of air transportation.

The foregoing are illustrative of specific, definite purposes that can be used to select experiences, materials, and procedures of evaluation. All purposes should be stated in a similar manner.[8]

PLANNING THE INITIATION. The initiation of a unit should be planned to stimulate interests and problems, and to provide common experience so that effective group planning may take place. Participation by the group is essential so that the children can identify themselves with the unit that is to be undertaken. Problems and questions should grow out of the initiation and should be discussed and defined by the group as a basic step in problem solving. In order to accomplish these things a good initiation:

1. Stimulates keen interest on the part of each child.
2. Provides opportunities for pupil participation, and is not solely on a verbal level.
3. Employs a variety of materials.
4. Provokes childlike questions and problems.
5. Forms a common basis for group discussion.
6. Leads to group planning on ways to solve problems.
7. Starts the unit in profitable directions on a significant problem.
8. Does not create confusion by stimulating interest in too many problems at one time, or in problems beyond the maturity of the group.

The teacher's task is to plan initiations which meet the foregoing criteria. Many different approaches, and combinations of approaches,

[8] For an excellent discussion of purposes in unit planning see W. H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities* (Revised ed.). New York: Appleton-Century, 1952, pp. 417-423.

can be used. A consideration of a few selected examples is needed to clarify the use of techniques and materials in the initiation of a unit. The following examples are taken from records made by the writer during surveys of social studies programs in different school systems.

1. *Teacher suggestion.* The teacher may suggest that a given topic be studied. This procedure is not too effective as it is on the verbal level and children do not participate in it to any great extent. It rarely leads to effective group action unless it is done indirectly through an arranged environment, use of films, group discussion, sharing of materials, or other activities.

2. *Incidents.* A unit may be initiated as a result of an incident in the community. For example, a jet plane landing at the airport may start the unit on transportation, or a child bringing in a model boat to share with the class may start the boat unit. While such incidents should be used as they relate to the unit, one wonders what would have happened if the jet plane had landed elsewhere, or the child had brought some rocks instead of a boat. More substantial planning is needed to assure effective initiation of most units.

3. *Pre-test.* A pre-test may be used to start a unit, but most children need more stimulation than can be given by a test. The initiation should open up questions and problems in such a way as to promote discussion and planning. Tests are not the best way of bringing this about.

4. *Books.* Books are sometimes used to initiate a unit. New texts or several books brought from the library may be used to stimulate interest in a unit. If this approach is used exclusively, it is difficult to give a common background for group planning and discussion. In most instances, books should be used along with other resources in the initiation.

5. *Audio-visual materials.* A motion picture, film strip, set of slides, radio program, recording, or a story read to the class may be used to initiate a unit. For example, one teacher used a film on Mexico to stimulate discussion on key problems; another teacher used slides carefully selected to stimulate interest in pioneer life; still another read a story on farm life to open up possible activities of interest to the group. To be avoided in these approaches are such pitfalls as failure to secure the audio-visual aid at the right time, presenting so many ideas that the group does not sense immediate problems to attack, failure to stimulate interests of all children, and passive reception by the group instead of active participation. These difficulties can be avoided by careful pre-planning for the use of films, slides, and stories

in connection with other approaches, such as the arranged environment.

6. *Community resources.* A study trip or resource visitor may be used to initiate a unit. If careful plans are made, it is possible to provide a common experience for effective group planning. Generally speaking, however, these devices are more effectively used when the entire group plans for their use in relation to specific needs and problems that have arisen. Thus they are most effective as an approach to a new unit when used as an on-going activity growing out of the preceding unit. For example, one group in concluding a study of Life on the Farm made careful plans to visit a wholesale market in order to discover ways in which farm produce was processed and distributed. The visit to the market initiated the unit on The Wholesale Market in a smooth, on-going manner, and with no interruption in the overall emphasis for the year on "how we secure our food, shelter, and clothing."

7. *On-going experience.* One of the most effective approaches is that in which a given unit grows out of a preceding unit as an on-going experience. For example, one teacher initiated a study of The Grocery Store as an outgrowth of the unit on The Bakery. Questions had arisen regarding the buying, selling, delivering, and distribution of bread and other bakery products. Other illustrative sequences from unit to unit are: The Farm to Wholesale Market, Neighborhood to Community, Boats and Harbors to Community Life, and Colonial and Pioneer Living to Westward Movement. The essence of this type of approach is the children's recognition of the problems and needs which lead on to the next unit so that a smooth, uninterrupted transition is made.

8. *Arranged environment.* The arranged environment is an excellent device for introducing a unit. The classroom is attractively arranged with pictures, realia, maps, charts, books, pamphlets, and similar materials related to central problems in the unit.[9] Children are given an opportunity to examine the materials and to converse about them, thus actively participating in the initiation. A film, story, or recording may also be used. During discussion, questions and problems are clarified, and plans are made for attacking them. This procedure combines several of the foregoing into one unified approach in which the classroom is arranged and used as a laboratory to stimulate social learning.

[9] See the units in the Appendix for examples, p. 448, and p. 487. Also notice the suggested room arrangements, pp. 478-480.

A brief description of an arranged environment, and responses of children to it, may serve to clarify its use in the initiation of a unit. The following example is taken from a unit on The Westward Movement. The classroom was arranged as follows:

1. Pictures of scenes in an early pioneer town on the Missouri River were posted on the bulletin board. They included a general store, a wagon being loaded, a blacksmith shop, a general street scene, a covered wagon in process of construction, and a wagon leaving the city for the West.
2. On another section of the bulletin board there were pictures related to the Oregon Trail, including a caravan fording a river, life in a camp, a herd of buffalo, three Indian scouts watching a wagon train, wagons crossing the plains, and pioneers building cabins.
3. Another section of the bulletin board showed several pictures of Plains Indians, including the hunting of buffalo, an attack upon a wagon train, and Indian scouts.
4. On a table in a corner of the room there were several articles that the children could manipulate. These included a model of a covered wagon, pioneer dolls (a man, a woman, child), a powder horn, a flintlock rifle, candle molds, a water pouch, shot pouches, buffalo horns, a bull whip, arrows, bows, a corn grinder, and flint used in making arrows.
5. In another section of the room there was a large map of the United States, showing various mountain barriers, rivers, and trails.
6. In the library corner, attractively displayed, were several books about Indians, pioneers, covered wagons, cities in the early West, and traveling in pioneer days.
7. In the construction corner tools, nails, boards, sawhorses, paper, scissors, paint, and empty boxes had been placed.

As the children eagerly examined the different items in the arranged environment, the teacher noted comments, questions, needs, interests, desires, and problems expressed by them. Typical comments and questions included the following:

What kind of gun is this? How did they work it?
Look at these wagons. Would they hold very much?
I'll bet it was hard to ride in these wagons. They're different from cars, aren't they?
I wonder if it's hard to make a covered wagon.
How did they carry their food and water in these wagons?

Look at the clothes that they wore!
Oh! I see how they got across rivers with the covered wagon.
Notice how this town is different from ours.
Look at the store and the man making covered wagons.

The teacher noted these and other questions and problems raised by the children. These were clues for the development of significant experiences in the unit. After the children had examined the materials, the teacher and the group engaged in a lively discussion of the many interesting materials and activities related to the Westward Movement. Through group planning subsequent interests and problems were identified, and specific plans were made for working on them. Thus, the unit was begun in an exciting and challenging manner.

Which type of initiation is the best? It is impossible to say that one approach is the best for all situations. In some instances a film

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A well-arranged classroom environment can be used to initiate a unit because it creates many interests and problems. What questions might arise after examination of these materials?

may be available, an incident may occur, or a field trip is possible, whereas other resources are not available at the moment. In other situations, a discussion of common experiences during the summer may lead to a rich study of some aspect of community living, transportation, or conservation. The teacher must be alert to these possibilities and use them in a creative manner. In general, however, it is the writer's firm belief that the arranged environment and the initiation growing out of another unit as an on-going activity are generally the two most effective approaches. In each unit that is planned it is sound procedure to consider previous experiences of the group so that each unit can be an on-going activity, and to plan an arranged environment that can be used to get off to a successful beginning. Then the teacher is prepared to launch the unit in an effective manner and does not have to wait for other approaches to arise. After the approach is decided upon, the teacher should plan and guide the initiation so that it creates keen interest in the unit, provokes significant questions, provides for pupil participation, employs a variety of materials, leads to group planning, and starts the unit in profitable directions.

Major Problems or Needs. A basic consideration in unit planning is the determination of the needs or problems that will most likely arise and which are of primary importance in the unit. By determining major problems ahead of time it is possible to engage in more effective pre-planning. Related activities and materials can be selected for each major problem.[10] This does not mean that the exact order or sequence of problems can be determined. The sequence develops as the teacher and children plan together.

The problems that are selected should be meaningful to children. They should be stated in simple language, and in much the same form as they will probably arise in group planning. The problems should be childlike, include the most important phases of the unit, be of interest to children, be attainable by the group, stimulate problem solving, and contribute to the purposes of the unit. The following examples, taken from a unit on Pioneer Life, are illustrative. Notice that they are stated as purposes of children, or things the group will probably wish to do.

1. To make pioneer furniture.
2. To make utensils and clothing.
3. To engage in dramatic play related to living in the cabins.
4. To determine how the pioneers dressed.

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[10] See the examples in the Appendix, pp. 450-460, and pp. 489-503.

5. To find out how homes were lighted and heated.
6. To make candles, soap, brooms.
7. To engage in dramatic play related to hunting.
8. To make guns, powder horns, knives.
9. To learn how pioneers provided shelter such as half-faced camp, lean-to, dugout, cabin, stockade, fort.

SELECTING EXPERIENCES TO SOLVE PROBLEMS. After the major problems in the unit have been outlined, each one should be analyzed in order to determine the related experiences and materials that are needed to solve it. The following excerpts show the activities and materials selected to solve a problem in a unit on Air Transportation.

PROBLEM: To find out about types of aircraft and their uses.

1. Arrange the bulletin board with pictures of different types of aircraft.
   a. Children may bring and show pictures.
2. Discuss types of aircraft that the group has seen. Possible questions are:
   a. What kinds of planes have you seen?
   b. What other types of aircraft have you seen?
3. Demonstrate elementary principles of flight by using a balsa-wood glider.
4. Guide group planning to determine ways of finding out about types of aircraft.
   a. Interviews, trip to airport, resource visitor, reading, film strips.
5. Interview airport workers and parents or relatives who are familiar with different types.
6. Read such references as:
   a. Whipple, *Airplanes at Work*, pp. 213-222.
7. Individual references may be used such as:
   a. Booth, *Book of Modern Airplanes.*
   b. Encyclopedias.
8. See film strip on airplanes.
9. See slides on old-time aircraft.
10. See demonstration and hear discussion of model planes by Mr. Johns, telephone DR 4-2671.

Many other types of activities can be used in connection with a given problem or need. The suggestive list which follows is based on a review of recently developed units:

1. *Community experiences.* Taking study trips, interviewing resource persons, listening to resource visitors, observing community activities, sharing current events, making collections, doing field studies, and doing service projects.

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Plans should be made for experiences in playing instruments, composing songs, hearing records, singing, and rhythmic expression because such activities help to round out qualitative and subjective aspects of learning.

2. *Language experiences.* Conversation, discussion, story-telling, choral speaking, making reports, giving brief talks, making announcements, giving directions, telephoning, dramatic play, dramatization, writing letters and outlines, reading pamphlets and books, listening to others, spelling needed words.

3. *Audio-visual experiences.* Seeing films, slides, pictures, and T-V programs, hearing recordings and radio programs, examining and making collections, examining realia and working models, studying and making posters, cartoons, and graphs, using and making maps and charts, seeing and making dioramas, panoramas, and exhibits, seeing and giving demonstrations.

4. *Number experiences.* Using number concepts, measuring, counting and reading numbers, computing, solving problems.

5. *Musical experiences.* Playing instruments, singing songs, listening to recordings, composing songs, using musical accompaniments.

6. *Physical experiences.* Rhythmic bodily expression, folk dancing, playing games.

7. *Industrial and fine arts experiences.* Processing raw materials, construction, book making, clay modeling, soap and wood carving, making puppets and marionettes, weaving, printing, stenciling and spatter painting, decorating textiles, making appliques, drawing and painting, lettering and labeling, arranging materials, sketching and illustrating.

Specific examples of ways in which activities and content from different areas of the curriculum may be used in units of work are suggested in the Appendix, pp. 464-477, and pp. 505-513.

In order to make sure that educative experiences are being selected, specific criteria should be used to choose activities for use in solving a given problem in a unit. The following statement includes criteria most frequently mentioned in units and courses of study.

All experiences selected for use in a unit should:

1. Contribute to the achievement of the purposes of the unit.
2. Stimulate problem solving and critical thinking.
3. Be geared to the level of development of the group.
4. Be varied so as to hold interest, meet individual needs, and provide for individual and cooperative group activity.
5. Be worth while and practical with reference to time, expense, and available resources.
6. Be recognizable by the group as being needed to solve the problem.
7. Lead to other significant activities.
8. Be authentic and realistic in order to build accurate concepts.
9. Call for the use of a variety of materials and skills.

CULMINATION. Culminating activities are planned to summarize and organize the unit. They are used in some units and not used in others: some teachers recommend them, others frown upon their use; some have real value, others are teacher-imposed activities. Basic questions for the teacher to ask in deciding whether or not to have a culminating activity are:

1. Will a culminating activity contribute to social learning?
2. Is it worth the time, effort, and expense?
3. Do the children see sense in it?
4. Will it be childlike?
5. Is it a natural outgrowth of preceding activities?
6. Does it suggest a new area of study?
7. Will it help to organize the children's thinking?

Oakland

Number experiences—counting, weighing, measuring, computing—are involved in many units. Can you think of functional number experiences to include in a unit?

8. Does it provide opportunities to apply key learnings?
9. Does it stimulate democratic sharing?
10. Will each child have an opportunity to participate?
11. Will it help to evaluate the achievement of purposes?

If, after careful study of the foregoing questions, a culminating activity appears to have real value for a given group, it should be used. However, if a culmination is to be used solely to "put on a show," it will have little value for the group.

The following examples illustrate types of culminating activities that have been used successfully. In a Colonial Study, one group ended the unit by presenting and discussing the following:

Time lines and maps that had been made.
Models of objects that had been constructed.
Reports on life in the different colonies.
A presentation of songs and rhythms that had been created.
Some of the folk songs and folk dances that had been learned.
Pictures and murals that had been drawn.

Many other types of culminating activities can be used. The following list is not exhaustive, but it does include a sampling from recently developed units and courses of study: demonstrations; discussion of maps, time lines, charts; dramatizations; excursions; exhibits; festivals; group reports; group-made tests; making a scrapbook; pageants; quiz programs; round table discussions; self-evaluative activities; service projects; sharing of creative poems, stories, songs; sharing of pictures; and tableaus.

Many teachers plan units so that the final activity in one unit leads to the development or beginning of the next unit. This is one of the most effective types of culminating activity, as it promotes continuity of learning. In other words, as has been mentioned earlier, the final activity is really an on-going activity to conclude one unit and to initiate another.

Evaluation. Evaluation is an essential element in all phases of the unit from the initiation to the culminating activity. Pre-planning should be made for evaluation just as it is made for other experiences in the unit. The purposes of the unit must be kept clearly in mind as aspects of behavior to be appraised in a variety of situations. Information secured through evaluation should be used to improve daily planning, select new materials, clarify needs of individual children, and improve group work. At times summaries should be made and filed or recorded in the cumulative record. The entire process of

evaluation should be viewed as an inseparable part of the group and individual activities carried on to improve social learning.

Many teachers find it helpful to plan for the use of a variety of evaluative devices. Many procedures are developed as the unit progresses. Examples are charts on work standards, informal evaluation through observation by the teacher, self-evaluation by the children, analysis of sample materials, and group evaluation after various activities. Other procedures such as checklists, tests, and interest inventories are prepared ahead of time and used as needed. The following list is suggestive of devices that can be used (examples of several of these devices appear in Chapter 15): [11]

Tests
Interviews
Case studies
Case conferences
Observation
Group discussion
Anecdotal records
Questionnaires
Files of sample material
Inventories
Rating scales
Checklists
Logs or diaries
Group-made charts
Sociometric techniques
Recordings
Films
Photographs
Stenographic reports
Pupil-made devices

KEEPING A LOG TO EVALUATE THE UNIT. One item needing special comment at this point has to do with keeping a log of the unit as it develops. Many teachers have advised the writer that the keeping of a simple log is an excellent procedure for use in evaluating the unit, and for gathering ideas to use in revising the unit. A satisfactory log is a simple, brief, running account of the unit, with comments on daily activities. Good points, weaknesses, needed changes, difficulties, and special problems should be noted. Many teachers jot down items during the day, or at the end of the day, and keep them in a folder. This type of log is simply a series of brief notes for future use. The writer earnestly recommends keeping logs as a procedure for improving each unit that is developed.

PREPARING AND COLLECTING MATERIALS. It is helpful to prepare and collect as many materials as possible before the unit is begun. Pictures, maps, pamphlets, models, art materials, construction materials, and some audio-visual aids can be secured in advance. Teacher-prepared materials include such items as charts, study guides, slides, simply

[11] J. U. Michaelis, "Current Practices in Evaluation in City School Systems," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 9:15-22, Spring, 1949.

rewritten material,[12] scrapbooks, checklists, directions for processes, plans for construction, and evaluative devices. Obviously, some of these must be prepared as the unit develops, but they should be prepared ahead of time whenever possible. Such a procedure enables the teacher to spend more time working with the group as the unit is being developed. After materials are collected, it is helpful to organize them in a box or a file so that they are easily accessible for reference and use by the teacher as needed.

SUMMARY OF UNIT PLANNING

Perhaps it will be helpful at this point to summarize the major considerations that are essential in unit planning. Although the order of the steps may vary, the following are essential:

1. The unit is selected after a review of the course of study and a study of the needs and growth characteristics of the group for which it is intended.
2. A rich background of experience is developed by the teacher through reading and annotating references, interviewing, visiting, trying out processes and experiments, making collections, previewing audio-visual aids, and reviewing units developed by others.
3. An outline is made of purposes, major needs and problems, content, and experiences that should be included in the unit.
4. Consideration is given to ways of initiating the unit such as arranging the classroom to stimulate needs and problems, relating it to a preceding unit, using questions, suggestions, and experiences of children, or introducing it by direct means such as a story, an announcement, or the distribution of a textbook.
5. Problems and subsequent activities growing out of the initiation are listed along with related experiences and needed materials.
6. Attention is given to ways in which evaluation may be carried on continuously throughout the unit, and to the appropriateness of culminating activities.
7. A list is made of textbooks, audio-visual aids, community resources, and library materials.
8. Needed resources such as charts, time lines, models, manipulative materials, evaluative devices, rewrites of difficult reading material, maps, and floor layouts are prepared.
9. The unit plan and collections of materials are organized into a kit to be used as the unit develops.

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[12] See examples in Chapter 12.

10. A simple, easy-to-use plan is made for keeping a log of the unit as it develops with the group.

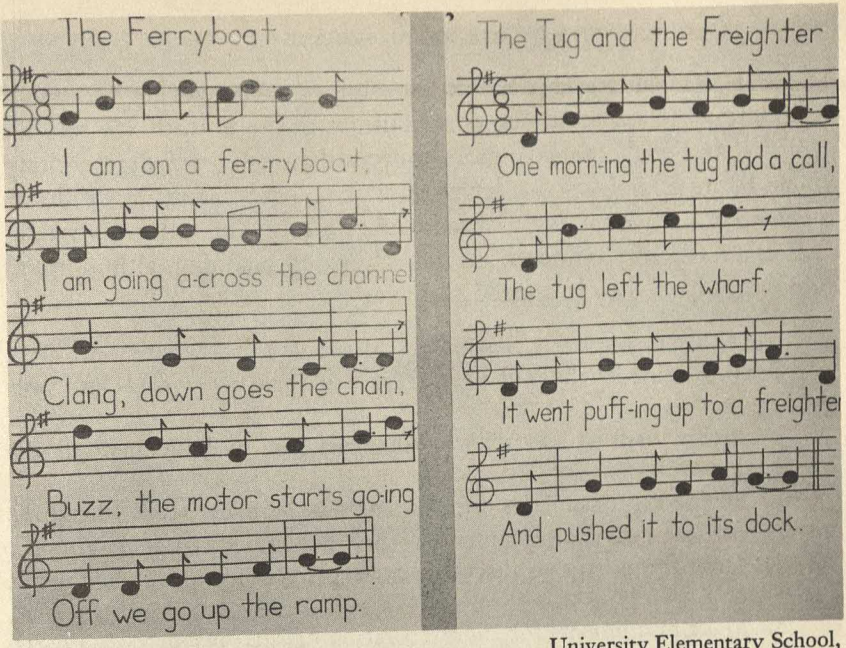
SELECTED PROBLEMS AND ISSUES

There are several other problems and issues related to the use of units in the social studies that need brief attention. These relate to such problems as using units planned by others, duration of a given unit, designs for the written plan, cooperative teacher-planning of units, and using materials from other areas of the curriculum.

UNITS PREPARED BY OTHERS. Teachers frequently ask whether or not they should use units of work written by others. The answer is *yes*, if selected units are enriched and adapted to the needs of a given class. In fact, many school systems are developing and distributing units of work for the use of all teachers. Like a course of study, a teacher's manual, or any other instructional aid, units developed by others should be checked for good suggestions, and used to the extent that they meet the needs of a given group. They should not, however, be imposed upon a group of children, since such a procedure would obviously lead to regimentation, neglect of individual differences, and loss of children's interest in the program. On the other hand, the belief, held by a few, that teachers should write each unit, and not even scrutinize those developed by others lest creativity be curbed, is both naïve and impractical. In order to secure optimum efficiency in planning social studies experiences, teachers need more help, not less, in the preparation and use of units of work.

DURATION OF A UNIT. The length of time over which a given unit will extend varies; it depends upon the interest and ability of the group, supply of books and other materials, richness of the experience within the unit, skill of the teacher in providing a stimulating environment and in guiding children into experiences that lead into new interests, and the number of significant problems that arise while the unit is under way. As the teacher observes a group in action, it is possible to determine whether there is added value in continuing a given unit after the major problems have been completed. In other words, no set time can or should be given for a given unit, since length of a unit will vary from group to group, community to community, and teacher to teacher.

The following examples of the lengths of time spent on various units are illustrative. One group in Grade I completed a unit on The Home in three weeks; another group of more mature six-year-olds



University Elementary School,
University of California at Los Angeles

Creative expression through music is an essential part of many units of work. How might you provide for creative musical experiences?

spent eight weeks on a similar unit. The additional time used by the second group was consumed in several field trips, construction of a playhouse in the classroom, and dramatic play. A group of seven-year-olds in the study of Life on the Farm spent ten weeks before the study was completed. They constructed many articles, engaged in dramatic play, and took excursions to a nearby farm. Another group in a more restricted program, which was largely limited to stories and art activities, completed a unit on The Farm in four weeks. One group spent an entire semester in a study of Pioneers and the Westward Movement. Interest was high throughout the entire unit. Another group spent only ten weeks on the same topic because of limitations on materials and activities that could be used. Other groups spend as much as a full year on one major area of experience.

In planning the duration of a unit the teacher must consider the needs, interests, and maturity of the group, consult the course of study for suggested time allotment, consider other units that should be developed with the group, and then come to a decision regarding the length of a unit to be developed during a given semester or year.

Cooperative Unit-Planning. Group planning by teachers is an effective procedure for the preparation of units of work and should

be employed whenever possible. Several teachers working together can share ideas, make unique contributions to the unit, divide responsibilities, and analyze many more sources than can a teacher working alone. Some school systems have found it helpful to form committees made up of individuals with varied backgrounds. The following guidelines are essential considerations in such group planning, although the order in which they are listed may vary:

1. Think through the possibilities in the unit as a group, and make a tentative outline of the unit headed by a statement of values and purposes.
2. Assign various subtopics within the unit to individuals in the group.
3. Divide responsibilities for the analysis of materials, with agreement beforehand on the type of notes that should be used.
4. Meet frequently to discuss next steps, problems, and difficulties that arise.
5. Make assignments for the preparation of such resources as charts, time lines, manipulative materials, evaluative devices, and simple rewrites of difficult reading materials.
6. Consider ways in which the unit may be initiated.
7. Assemble the subtopics and analysis of materials in a tentative sequence of experiences.
8. Consider ways in which evaluation may be carried on as the unit develops, as well as at the culmination of the unit.
9. Organize a bibliography of references and a list of instructional resources.

USING MATERIALS FROM OTHER AREAS OF THE CURRICULUM. In the development of a unit it is frequently necessary to draw upon and use materials from many different areas of the curriculum. This is necessary because the problem-solving process should not stop at subject-matter boundaries. If experiences in art, music, arithmetic or the language arts are essential to the solution of a major problem in a given unit, then they should be used by the group to solve that problem. If selected pieces of literature will help to clarify social understandings, they should be used. If material from science is essential to an understanding of ways of living in the community, that material should be used. In any problem-solving situation, the group should gather the data needed to solve the problem, regardless of the boundaries set up by subject-matter experts.

The problem of the subject-matter expert needs brief comment. The writer has on several occasions heard individuals representing such

Oakland

Related science experiences should not be overlooked as units are being planned. What science experiences are appropriate in a unit you are planning? (See the examples in the Appendix, pp. 510-513.)

fields as science, literature, art, and music "view with alarm" the practice of using materials from "their" respective fields in the social studies. Some of them have pointed out that "Our field must remain strong and virile, and must continue to hold a major position in the curriculum." Such a point of view represents the old academic approach to elementary education, in which the child was pushed aside while battles raged over the importance of subjects. In sharp contrast are the subject-matter experts who sit down with teachers to help them plan rich learning experiences for boys and girls. Problems and situations that are significant to children are considered, and then the basic question is raised: "How can subject matter from various fields of learning be used to solve these problems?"

In using material from other fields, it should be kept in mind that other areas of the curriculum are drawn upon to facilitate problem solving, and not to bring about superficial correlation and integration. A few teachers have at times "dragged" related materials and activities into the social studies just to be "correlatin' " and "integratin'." Such a procedure gets nowhere, because the use of related fields in the

social studies can make sense to children only when the problems and situations being considered call for use of experiences from other areas of the curriculum. The child himself must see relationships, and use the related content and materials to solve problems and to achieve purposes which are real to him. Several illustrative examples of materials from other areas are presented in the Appendix, pp. 464-477, and pp. 505-513.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Get acquainted with sources of sample units prepared by others by checking the following as available in your situation:
   a. Sample units in the library or curriculum laboratory.
   b. Magazines which contain unit plans or articles on units such as *Social Education, The Instructor, California Journal of Elementary Education, Grade Teacher, Elementary School Journal.*
   c. Curriculum guides which contain units of work.
   d. Books which contain sample units of work or descriptions of units of work such as those listed in the references at the end of this chapter.
   e. Units of work published commercially such as those of Educational Division, *World Book Encyclopedia,* Field Enterprises Inc., Chicago, Ill. (Units for middle grades are available at 10¢ each.)
   f. Units of work prepared by fellow students and teachers.
   g. Units listed in *The Education Index* under the sub-heading "Units."
2. Make a critical review of a unit found in one of the sources above in terms of the "characteristics of an effective unit of work" presented in the first part of this chapter. Or, review one of those in the Appendix. In what ways would you alter it and improve it for use in your situation?
3. Make a plan for a unit of work following the outline suggested in this chapter or the outline of one of the units in the Appendix. If possible, plan it cooperatively with a fellow student using the suggestions in this chapter on "cooperative unit planning." Suggest ways in which you can utilize experiences in art, music, arithmetic and other areas of the curriculum as the unit is developed.
4. Prepare a kit (or box) of resource materials—pictures, songs, recipes, directions for construction, maps, charts, pamphlets, etc.—that can be used with the unit you are planning.
5. Arrange to visit a classroom in which a unit of work of interest to you is being developed. Visit several times so that you can observe the initiation, several subsequent experiences, and the culmination. Discuss questions and problems regarding the planning and developing of units with the teacher in charge.

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6

USING EFFECTIVE GROUP PROCESSES

The success of the social studies program depends to a large degree upon the teacher's skill in developing and utilizing group processes in each unit of work that is developed. The term *group processes* simply means ways of working together to solve common problems. Since the very essence of democratic behavior resides in cooperative group work it is necessary to give detailed consideration to the use of group processes in the social studies.

BACKGROUNDS FOR EFFECTIVE GROUP PROCESSES

There are several background factors related to effective group processes which teachers should keep in mind as they work with elementary school children. In each of the topics discussed below, attention is focussed upon values, understandings, principles, and techniques that have been found to be most helpful to successful teachers. Of utmost importance are the teacher's own attitudes, appreciations, and feelings about group processes. As you read the following sections endeavor to visualize a group of children at work in a classroom in which the points stressed below are in actual operation. Better yet, visit a classroom and observe them in action!

VALUES. Democratic group processes improve individual and group efficiency.[1] More effective action is secured when individuals plan, work, and evaluate together. Group sharing and discussion of ideas lead to higher levels of thinking. Feelings of belongingness,

[1] Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Group Processes in Supervision.* Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1948.

security, acceptance, prestige, and mutual trust can be engendered.[2] Group action is more positive when based on the best thinking of each individual. The atmosphere of the democratic group is permissive and experimental, not hostile, punitive, or autocratic. Each individual has a place in the group and the talents of all are used. Morale is higher and more creative and constructive work is done in democratic atmosphere.[3] Both individual and group activity reach higher levels of efficiency when cooperative processes are employed.

INTERACTION. Interaction among all members of the group facilitates group processes. Maximum participation on the part of all members is essential to the development of effective group processes. All members of the group should have an opportunity to share ideas, present points of view, agree and disagree, clarify ideas, raise questions, and communicate with others. No restrictions should be set up because of racial, social, or class differences. The desires of cliques, special interest groups, and individuals must be considered in the light of group needs and commonly shared purposes. The best thinking, planning, and action of each individual, coupled with warm human relationships and respect for the contributions of each participant, are essential.[4] Majority decision and action should be accepted, trusted, and evaluated in terms of cooperatively made goals.[5]

GROUP GOALS. Clearly stated goals should be established by the group to guide planning, action, and evaluation. The goals of a group should be developed cooperatively, not imposed by a member of the group, a clique, or an outsider. The drive to action that comes from group-made goals is more potent than that secured when goals are imposed. In addition, group-made goals are better understood, can be changed by the group as new needs arise, and lead to more effective appraisal. Finally, group-made goals indicate levels of thinking and development, and give clues to the point at which the group should begin. Thus, goal making by the group is an essential element in cooperative action.

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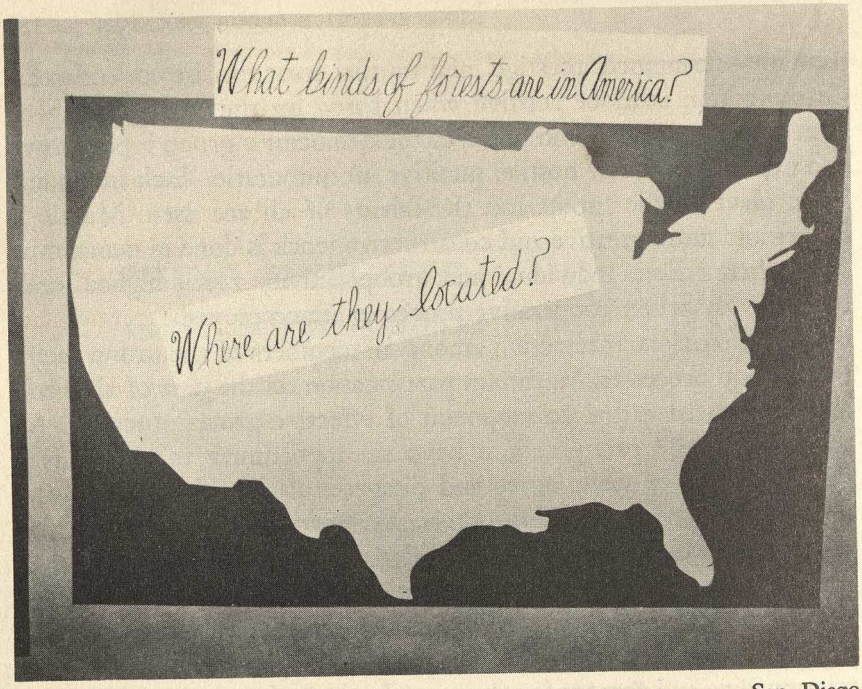
[2] Kurt Lewin, "The Dynamics of Group Action," *Educational Leadership*, 1:195-200, January, 1944; and Bernice Baxter and Rosalind Cassidy, *Group Experience*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1943, pp. 20-21.

[3] Ronald Lippitt, "An Experimental Study of the Effect of Democratic and Authoritarian Group Atmospheres," *University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare*, Bulletin 16, No. 3. Iowa City: 1940, pp. 43-195; and Ronald Lippitt and R. K. White, "The Social Climate of Children's Groups," in Robert C. Barker, Jacob S. Kounin, and H. F. Wright, *Child Behavior and Development*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1943, pp. 485-506.

[4] L. T. Hopkins, *Interaction: the Democratic Process*. New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1941.

[5] Baxter and Cassidy, *op. cit.*



San Diego

One of the first steps in clear thinking is the identification of questions and problems. Maps and other materials can be used to stimulate questions. How might you use this technique to stimulate critical thinking?

Critical Thinking. Critical thinking should permeate all phases of group action as children work to achieve common purposes. The free play of intelligence upon all problems, irrespective of personal desires, is imperative. The value of careful analysis of opinions, ideas, and suggestions should be recognized by each member of the group. Ideas, suggestions, and opinions should be accepted or rejected in terms of their value in achieving cooperatively established purposes. Emotional behavior must be recognized and considered when heated differences arise. Persuasion should be based on reason and used to move the group toward the achievement of purposes. Effective problem-solving techniques should be used, including recognition and definition of problems, planning of ways to solve problems, collection and organization of verified information, group action, and evaluation of the effectiveness of action and processes utilized by the group. The end result is a higher level of critical thinking, because each individual has shared his ideas with others and all ideas are tested in the crucible of group thinking.

Problem Solving. The teacher must understand and use sound

problem-solving procedures if effective group action is to be achieved. First of all, it must be recognized that problems and situations vary from group to group and from individual to individual. Problems of one group may mean nothing at all to another. To be a real problem, the individuals in a group must be concerned about it, interested in solving it, and see sense in it. The problem should be meaningful to children in terms of the understandings involved, and significant in terms of its application and use. Each problem should be defined and discussed so that its various parts are clearly discerned and ways to solve it can be considered. Relationships to past experiences should be explored. After clear definition, ways of attacking the problem should be selected and used.

A variety of techniques should be used to gather and verify information, and all data should be organized in a manner which facilitates application and use. Misconceptions and errors should be considered and corrected as they arise, and steps should be taken to prevent future mistakes or misapplications. Through appraisal of cooperative action, evaluative evidence can be secured regarding the effectiveness of planning, utilization of techniques, and skill in using concepts and information, thus making evaluation practical and to the point.

In most situations in the social studies, problem solving includes such elements as:

1. *Recognition and clarification of problems* through discussion of questions and problems raised by the group. Many questions and problems arise as an outcome of children's "exploring" an arranged environment in the classroom that is designed to open up key problems, seeing films and pictures, and listening to stories or recordings related to problems. Other questions and problems arise in daily activities.
2. *Group planning* on needed information, ways to secure information, procedures to use, and delegated responsibilities.
3. *Securing information* by experimenting, reading, processing materials, seeing demonstrations, taking excursions, using audio-visual materials, interviewing, listening to others, observing, and using library resources.
4. *Appraising and verifying information* by comparing sources, checking different findings, repeating the demonstration or experiment, reshowing the film, checking against past experience, consulting experts on points at issue, and "seeing if it works."

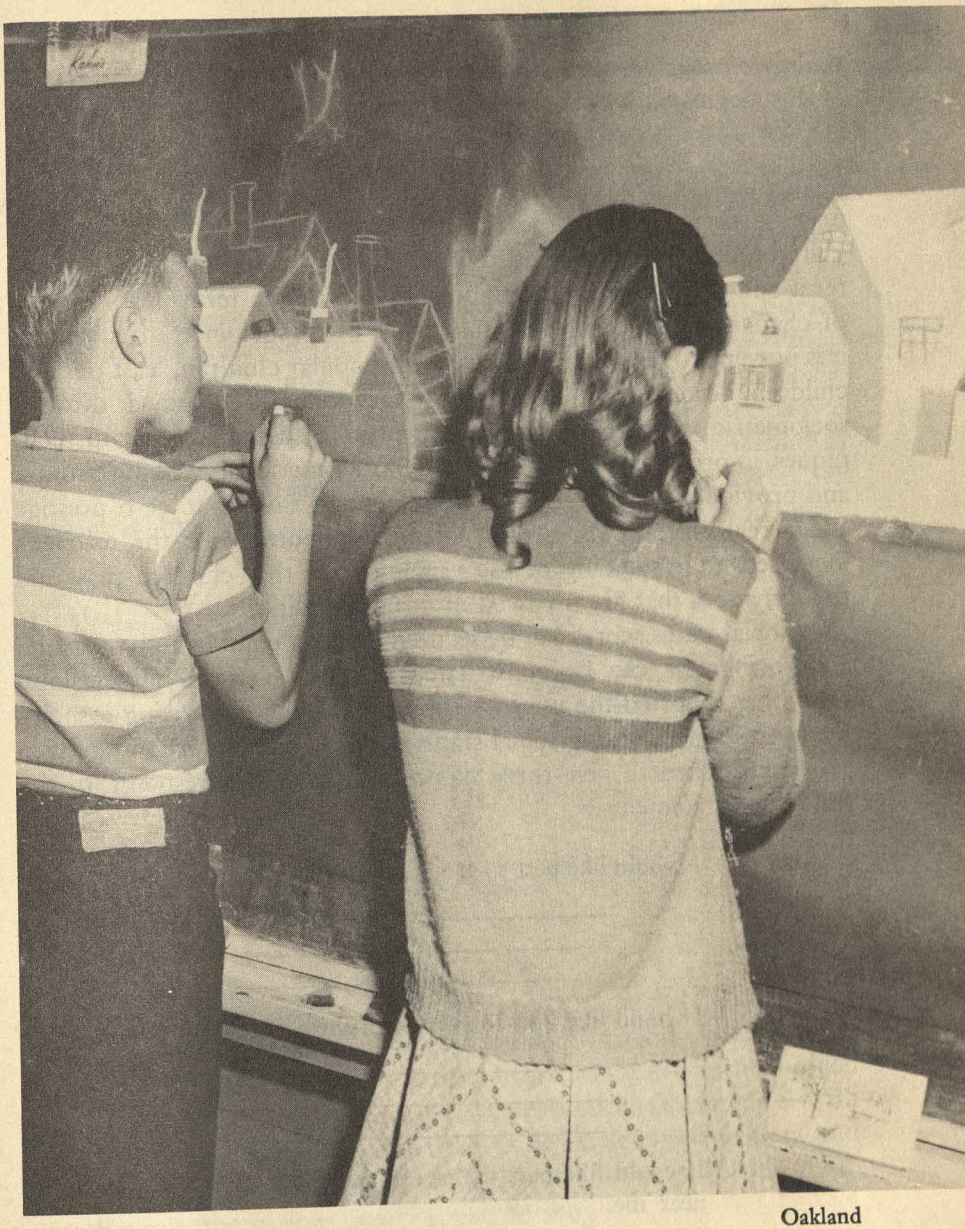
5. *Organizing and summarizing* information by means of directions, rules, group standards, maps, outlines, floor layouts, charts, plans for a program, and scrapbooks.
6. *Decision-making, and using information* in group action such as construction, dramatic play, art activities, rhythmic expression, composing songs, school programs, and exhibits.
7. *Evaluating* decisions, processes, major outcomes, and effectiveness of group action by means of discussions, checklists, charts, standards, and others means of individual and group self-evaluation.

Although no hard and fast rules can be made regarding the sequence of steps in problem solving, the elements noted above are of basic importance. In most situations there is a rhythm of clarification of goals, planning of ways to achieve the goals, action in securing, verifying, organizing and using information, and cooperative evaluation of group action.

Before concluding this section, attention should be called to general characteristics of group problem solving which make group work different from individual work. Thorndike [6] has noted the following:

1. The group typically brings a broader background of experience to a problem situation than does any single individual.
2. As a reflection of 1, the group is likely to produce more and more varied suggestions for dealing with a problem than will arise from a single individual.
3. The diversity of viewpoints is *likely* to be more representative of the larger population from which they were drawn than is the viewpoint of the single individual.
4. As diversity of background and interest within the group becomes greater, it becomes increasingly difficult to reach a real agreement among the members of the group as to the definition of the problem and the values to be served. Reconciliation of conflicting goals becomes a real problem.
5. Just as a group is likely to produce a greater range of suggestions, so also a group is likely to be more productive in criticism of proposals and bases for rejecting them.
6. Interstimulation is a distinctive feature of group effort. The suggestion by X, which is criticized by Y, serves as the stimulus to Z for a new and perhaps quite different suggestion.

[6] Robert L. Thorndike, "How Children Learn the Principles and Techniques of Problem-Solving," *Education and Learning*, Forty-ninth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950, p. 209. (Quoted by permission of the Society.)



Oakland

The making of murals is one of many ways children can organize and summarize information obtained through problem solving. Can you plan for the use of this technique in a unit of your choice so that children will learn to select and use a variety of methods to summarize ideas?

7. Interpersonal dynamics becomes a significant element. The assertive, the dogmatic, and the persuasive individual—each plays a distinctive role.

STUDYING STATUS IN THE GROUP. Simple sociometric techniques may be used to study social status and changes in social status as children engage in group activities. This may be done early in the term and again toward the middle or end of the term if an analysis of changes in status is to be made. By using sociometric techniques it is possible to determine cliques, most popular children, least popular children, leaders, and isolates. The information obtained through sociometric analysis can be used to plan discussions of group techniques, improve evaluation, organize more functional working groups, and provide opportunities for *neglectees* and *isolates* to earn prestige and a real place in the group. Of great importance is the teacher's increased understanding of the varying roles that children play and the dynamics that are involved in group activities.

Social status scores can be secured on each child in a given group and sociograms can be constructed to show various relationships. Olson has reported the use of a simple technique for giving a sociometric test and securing social status scores.[7] The children in a given group are asked to give three names of children in response to the following statements:

I would like best to *work* with these children:

_____
_____
_____

I would like best to *play* with these children:

_____
_____
_____

I would like best to have these children *sit* near me:

_____
_____
_____

The social status score is the number of choices received by each child. Students who are chosen by no other child are usually referred

[7] W. C. Olson, *Child Development*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1949, pp. 196-203.

to as *isolates;* children with low scores are called *neglectees;* children with high scores are called *stars.*

Sociograms are helpful in visualizing social status. The teacher simply has each child write down the names of two or three children with whom he would most like to work on a given project, or the names of best friends, and so forth. A simple chart is then made showing the choices of individuals in the group. In the following simplified sociogram, girls are shown by triangles, boys are indicated by circles, and each child is represented by a number. The sociogram is read as follows: Girl 2 chose Girl 3; Boys 4 and 8 chose each other; Boy 6 chose Girl 6, and so forth. Girl 1 and Boy 1 are isolates, not chosen by anyone. Boys 7 and 8 are stars, as is Girl 7. There are no mutual choices between stars, but Girl 7, a star, chose Boy 8, also a star. Sex cleavage is obvious, since there are few choices between boys and girls.

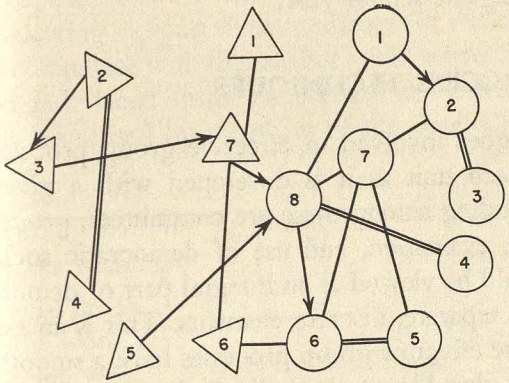


Chart 1

Other arrangements can be used to show various relationships.[8] For example, Olson [9] has used a series of four concentric circles which show children with highest scores in the central circle, children with decreasing scores in the second and third circles, and isolates and neglectees in the outer circle. By placing 25 per cent of the group in each circle, the various quartiles can be shown.

Because sociograms become too complicated with large groups, many teachers simply use social status scores. However, it is sometimes helpful to make a sociogram, as visualization of social status in a given group clearly reveals individual status and is helpful in case conferences.

[8] See *Sociometry*, May, 1947.
[9] Op. *cit.*

Sociometric techniques are helpful in grouping, forming committees, making plans to help isolates gain friends and prestige, and in improving social relationships. In all instances, however, it is necessary to do a careful study of the factors involved in a given child's status, as the sociogram and social status score simply identify the individuals in the group. For example, in one group studied by a teacher new to the school system, three isolates were located. One isolate was found to be a child who had recently moved from another city. With little effort, it was possible to arrange situations in which he could work with others and earn recognition from the group. Investigation revealed that the second child had been in the school for two years and had personality problems requiring the attention of experts in child study. The third child had problems that the teacher could handle through group work, and made steady growth in social adjustment during the school year.

GROUP PROCESS TECHNIQUES

The techniques involved in effective group processes are used extensively in each unit as it is developed with a given group of children. Outstanding among these are committees, group discussion, planning, action, evaluation, and use of democratic social attitudes. All of these should be viewed as an integral part of democratic group processes, not as separate, discrete elements. This is an essential consideration because effective group processes have a smoothly flowing, on-going quality that blends the various elements into a continuum of related experiences.

FUNCTIONAL GROUPING. Groups of various types and sizes are used in the social studies depending upon the problem to be solved, available space, equipment and materials, and needs developed in planning. All members of the group should work together during such experiences as planning, taking excursions, using audio-visual materials, sharing reports, and evaluation. Small groups may be used during such experiences as making a mural, writing script for a play, writing letters, making a wall map, or doing research on a given topic. Small groups of this type provide many opportunities for developing leadership and followership qualities. At other times small groups may be organized to provide help on special needs, such as reading, outlining, use of tools, or interviewing. Finally, individual responsibilities may be delegated, such as research on a special topic, preparation of a report, making a loom, interviewing an expert, or designing a costume.

COMMITTEES. In forming small groups or committees attention should be given to several factors. The chairman should be selected by the group after due consideration of needed qualifications. Clear plans should be formulated and checked prior to the beginning of committee work. The committee should be composed of a congenial working group, balanced in terms of needed abilities and talents, and interested in the job that is to be done. Provision should be made for needed materials, adequate working space, and sufficient time to make an effective beginning or to complete the job. Work standards should be developed beforehand and used by the committee as responsibilities are carried out.

It is important for each committee member to know what to do so that confusion, excessive noise, and disorganization can be avoided. Many teachers find it helpful to give a demonstration of good committee work after real needs have arisen for guidance. This can be done by selecting a group to demonstrate for the class, or by using the class as a committee with the teacher as chairman. Standards should be developed and placed on the chalkboard or on charts as real needs for standards are sensed by members of the class. Charts 2, 3, and 4 are illustrative.

COMMITTEE MEMBERS

1. Know what do do.
2. Divide the work.
3. Do each job well.
4. Discuss problems quietly.
5. Plan the report carefully.

Chart 2

COMMITTEE REPORTS

1. Stick to the questions.
2. Use pictures, objects, and maps.
3. Be ready to answer questions.

Chart 3

COMMITTEE CHAIRMEN

1. Keep the main job in mind.
2. Get ideas from all members.
3. See that each member has a job.
4. Be fair and don't talk all the time.
5. Urge everyone to do his best.
6. Say *our* committee, not *my* committee.

Chart 4

Burbank

Committee reports can be made more effective and more interesting by employing cooperative reporting techniques. Note the use of the map to indicate places being discussed. In what ways may other resources be used to improve reporting to the group?

As established committees proceed with their work, the teacher should move from committee to committee. Guidance should be given as needed; points should be noted for use in evaluation; suggestions for improving reports by using pictures, charts, maps, and the like may be suggested; and the interest and seriousness of each child in being a good committee worker should be noted and commended. Through careful observation and direct guidance as committees work, it is possible to bring about rapid growth in cooperative techniques in functional situations. And this is really what is needed: competence in significant group activities set up to achieve vital purposes!

Discussion. Discussion is one of the most valuable techniques used in democratic group action. Its use is essential to effective clarification of goals, planning, and evaluation. Discussion provides a prac-

tical opportunity to develop a group feeling as children engage in various experiences in the social studies. Social amenities are put to practical use, critical thinking is sharpened, and attention is focused upon common problems. Attention is given to problems, questions, and interests which arise in the daily program. Ideas are shared, points of view are expressed, leaders are selected, responsibilities are delegated, and respect is shown for the right of others to express themselves. Discussion is truly an essential technique of democratic education.

Group discussion provides opportunities for the teacher to note children's behavior as they think and plan together. Creativeness of contributions, sharing of ideas, respect for the opinions of others, consideration of differing points of view, shyness, boldness, and the like can be observed and given attention as individual needs arise. Many teachers find discussion situations to be a most valuable source of information regarding children's needs, potentialities, and backgrounds.

The teacher's role in group discussion is of crucial importance. An informal atmosphere is essential. Respect should be given to each child's contributions and group decisions should be respected. Shy children should be given encouragement and children who tend to monopolize the discussion should be guided in learning to share discussion time with others. The major problem to be discussed should be clarified and kept in mind throughout. Questions, illustrations, and comments should be called for as particular items need clarification. Adequate time must be given for thinking about points that are made and questions that are raised. To be avoided are such pitfalls as not sticking to the point, failure to clarify the problem, waste of time on side issues, repetitious comments, embarrassment of participants because of rejection of contributions, omission of key ideas, and domination of the discussion by a few individuals. If a summary of the discussion is essential, it may be recorded on the chalkboard or on a chart for use by the group. The spirit of group discussions should always be one of mutual interest and helpfulness. Emphasis should be given to the development of a feeling typified by such expressions as: "Let's talk it over;" "What's the best thing to do?" "How can we help each other?" In no instance should the mechanics, techniques, or evaluation of discussion interfere with the development and maintenance of fine group feelings.

A point needing emphasis is the role of the teacher (or discussion leader) in securing maximum participation of members of the group. In too many situations, discussion is simply a conversation between

the teacher and individuals in the group. For example, the teacher raises a question and gets a response; the teacher responds and another child contributes; this is followed by a rhythm of teacher to child to teacher to child, and so on, with the teacher making 50 to 95 per cent of the contributions. In sharp contrast is the situation in which the teacher makes a contribution and several children make comments before the teacher or the leader intervenes.[10] Charts 5 and 6 illustrate this point. The rectangle represents the teacher (or leader) and the circles represent the participants. The lines indicate the flow of discussion from one individual to another. Chart 5 illustrates teacher (or leader) domination; Chart 6 illustrates group interaction.

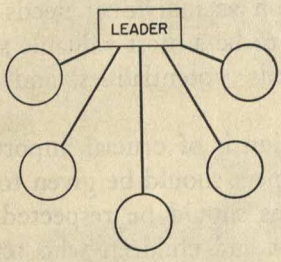


Chart 5

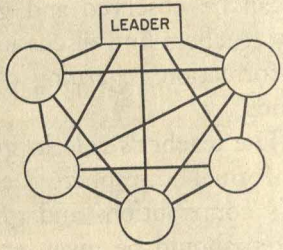


Chart 6

Sometimes it is wise to have children lead the discussion, particularly in intermediate and upper grades. When this is done, attention must be given beforehand to the development of guidelines for leading the discussion. This may be illustrated by considering Chart 7,

DISCUSSION LEADERS

1. Call the group to order.
2. Clear up the problem.
3. Get ideas from the group.
4. Have the secretary keep notes.
5. Call on different children.
6. Stick to the point.
7. Get answers to questions from the group.
8. Summarize the discussion.

Chart 7

[10] Adapted from Olson, *op. cit.*, p. 194-195, who refers to these two types of group relationships as "coaction" and "interaction."

which was developed by a group in Grade V in order to meet specific problems that had arisen.

Evaluation of discussion should be carried on by both the teacher and the group with specific attention given to points and problems that have arisen. The teacher should keep in mind the essential elements of effective discussion and the maturity of the children. The discussion itself can be appraised in terms of the following: [11]

Goal

1. To what extent was the goal understood?
2. To what extent was discussion halted by lack of information?
3. Was the goal reached?

Motivation

1. Were all of the group equally interested in the problem?
2. Was interest maintained?
3. Did the group feel united by a common purpose?
4. Were individual interests subordinated to the common goal?

Participation

1. Was participation general?
2. Were contributions to the point?
3. Were contributions factual or biased?

DISCUSSION
1. Take turns.
2. Help make plans.
3. Listen to others.

PRIMARY
Chart 8

DISCUSSION
1. Help state the problem.
2. Give your ideas.
3. Consider other ideas.
4. Listen carefully.
5. Help to make a plan.

INTERMEDIATE
Chart 9

DISCUSSION
1. State problems clearly.
2. Stick to the point.
3. Respect ideas of others.
4. Make a contribution.
5. Weigh the evidence.
6. Raise questions on issues.
7. Help in making decisions.
8. Help in summarizing.

UPPER
Chart 10

[11] New York City Schools, *Curriculum and Materials*. New York: Board of Education, 3:4-5, February, 1949.

GROWTH IN DISCUSSION

Note: Check each child two or three times during the semester to see if growth is taking place.

Behaviors to be Checked	Names of Children				
Understands the problem					
Listens while others speak					
Is an interested and willing listener					
Interjects ideas at appropriate points					
Considers ideas contrary to his own					
Sticks to the topic					
Does not repeat ideas given by others					
Gets to the point without delay					
Speaks clearly and distinctly					
Uses appropriate language					
Uses concepts accurately					
Is interested in comments of others					

The maturity of the group is an essential consideration in guiding and evaluating group discussion. Charts, checklists, and group evaluation should take levels of growth into account. The charts on p. 171, designed as guides to direct and evaluate growth in discussion ability, show how adaptations can be made to groups at various stages of development.

Los Angeles

Group planning is prerequisite to effective group action. How can you use group planning in a unit of work?

In addition to evaluation carried on by the group, the teacher must consider each child's role in discussion so that effective planning and guidance can be carried out. The checklist on p. 172 suggests several points that should be kept in mind as each child's growth in discussion ability is considered. Others may be added or some may be deleted, depending upon the maturity of the group and the specific needs requiring attention.

Group Planning. Group planning of ways to achieve goals is essential in democratic group action.[12] How to solve a problem, what to do next, and delegation of responsibilities are key aspects of planning. Many ideas and procedures are suggested as children formulate goals and purposes. Others emerge as the children define the problem,

[12] For a good analysis with applications at various levels and in many situations see Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Group Planning in Education*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1945.

consider needed materials, raise questions, discover difficulties, try out various proposals, and evaluate progress. Out of planning discussions are developed the specific procedures and responsibilities essential to the achievement of group-made goals.

In guiding group planning, cooperative procedures should be used. All members of the group should participate and the unique contributions of each individual should be sought. Needs and purposes that have grown out of group activity should be given attention. Suggestions regarding needed information and material should be considered and evaluated by the group. Work standards, individual responsibilities, and small-group responsibilities should be discussed and agreed upon. Differences of opinion need consideration and efforts should be made to secure a consensus. Experimentation may require consideration if two or more procedures of equivalent worth are proposed. Records such as charts, notes, directions, and minutes should be kept as needed to guide activities.

Planning and replanning as new problems arise are features of effective group action.[13] Initial planning is carried out in group discussion with special attention to questions, problems, and responsibilities. Replanning is necessary as new needs arise and as special problems are presented for consideration. Both initial planning and replanning should involve more than a search for sources of information. For example, attention may well be given to such items as formulating problems, devising ways to secure data, setting up work standards, deciding on things to construct, considering ways to secure and use materials, overcoming obstacles, helping others, extending interests, investigating proposals, submitting suggestions, asking for help, and finding out about opinions and ideas of others. Planning is also essential in getting ready for research activities, construction, dramatic play, processing of materials, field trips, and creative expression through art, music, literature, and rhythms (several concrete examples of planning appear on pages 356-358 and 380-382).

In guiding group planning, the teacher should keep the following principles in mind:

1. All should share in planning so that the best ideas of each member of the group are brought to bear upon the problem.
2. Problems and needs expressed by the children should receive major attention. Neglected problems can be called to the attention of the group by the teacher.

[13] For a good analysis of group planning see, H. H. Giles, *Teacher-Pupil Planning*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1941.

3. The teacher should create a feeling of freedom and responsiveness by showing utmost respect for each child and his contributions.
4. Constructive suggestions should be secured from the group; negative comments should be redirected into positive suggestions.
5. Techniques of clear thinking are essential; examples are getting the problem clearly in mind, hearing all suggestions, accepting best suggestions, forming tentative conclusions, determining needs for additional information and sources of information, and basing plans of action upon sound conclusions.
6. The teacher, or leader, should participate (without dominating) as encouragement is needed, impasses are reached, or too difficult problems arise.
7. Standards for planning should be developed and used as needs arise.
8. Records should be made and kept as needed to further group action; examples are charts, directions, reading guides, work sheets, notes, and minutes.
9. Group decisions growing out of planning should lead to specific plans of action.
10. Group planning is effective when each child understands what he is to do, knows where he is to do it, knows what tools and materials he is to use, knows how to proceed with his work, understands group-made standards, knows where to get help if problems arise, and knows with whom he is to work.

GROUP ACTION. Group action growing out of planning is most effective when each individual carries out his responsibilities in line with group purposes. After planning is completed, individual and small-group responsibilities should be accepted and carried out with dispatch. A willingness to help others and to secure help when needed is essential. Each individual should work as a member of the group, hold to plans, endeavor to understand the role of others, and control his behavior with reference to established goals. Available time and materials should be used wisely and in accordance with group plans.

As children engage in group work, the teacher should observe carefully in order to get information for use in group evaluation. Attention should be given to acceptance of responsibilities, cooperation, courtesy, and self-control. Attention should also be given to the various materials that are being used, techniques that need to be improved, and misconceptions, erroneous ideas, and errors that arise.

As children engage in group work the teacher has many opportunities to move about and to give help as needed. A child may be having difficulty in locating material in a given reference, or some children may be having difficulty using tools and materials. By giving

judicious assistance, the teacher can make sure that effective learning takes place. For example, in a unit on Pioneer Life, one teacher noticed during a research period that several youngsters were having difficulty in using the table of contents. Others were not sure of the topics to locate in the index. Notes were made of these items and they became important problems in a later discussion that centered upon skills involved in the location of materials. Another example can be taken from a construction period in which model covered wagons were being made. The teacher noticed that several children were not holding the saws correctly, some were not using the C-clamps to hold boards properly, and others were having difficulty in selecting appropriate materials. The teacher moved about the room and gave suggestions as such needs were detected. By giving help at a point of real need, richer learning was possible for each child.

The way in which children utilize the work standards which they have helped to formulate should also be noted by the teacher. Commendation should be given to those children who are carrying out group-made standards and who help others to do so. In some cases the teacher may find it necessary to ask a child to stop an activity for a few minutes until he has thought through the significance of group standards with reference to his own behavior. In a few instances, some children must be excluded from the group until they realize that they must accept all of the responsibilities involved in the activity. Following the work period, time should be given to a careful reconsideration of the group standards and ways in which they can be used by each member of the group.

Particular attention must be given to those few youngsters who appear to be at a loss as to just what they should do in a given activity. If the planning period has been carefully organized, there will be very few children who do not have clear purposes in mind. During the work period, be it research, dramatic play, or construction, the teacher may find it necessary to give further guidance to certain children who do not have clear purposes in mind. Frequently children in the room volunteer to help others who aren't sure what they should do to complete a given activity. This is a good indication of cooperative behavior and should be encouraged by the teacher. Careful planning, however, at the beginning of the work period is the most effective technique to use in order to assure active participation on the part of all members of the group.

The ways in which members of the group use materials should also be noted. Courtesy and sharing, taking turns, proper use of tools,

proper selection of material, and the ways in which children help others use materials are of particular importance. Toward the end of the work period materials and equipment should be put in their proper places. Careful attention should also be given to the clean-up period and placement of materials in cupboards. The learnings that grow out of the proper care of materials are important and should not be neglected in group work.

GROUP EVALUATION. Group evaluation is an essential element in all phases of democratic group action from initial definition of problems to appraisal of the effectiveness of group work. Through evaluation the group answers such questions as: "Is each individual doing his part?" "Are the plans effective?" "Are leadership responsibilities being carried out?" "Are our goals being achieved?" "Are additional resources needed?" "What next steps should be taken?" In making appraisals the group may use discussions and charts or checklists, refer to a log or diary of activities, secure assistance from an observer (usually the teacher in the social studies), examine work materials, or use other evaluative devices (see Chapter 15).

Through group evaluation the teacher guides the children to a critical consideration of the key problems that have arisen in a given work period. The children themselves should make suggestions for the improvement of their work, for better use of materials, and for a better application of group standards that have been set. New purposes and goals should be established, needs for other materials and tools should be considered, and next steps should be charted. Much self-evaluation by the pupils themselves is essential.

The following evaluation discussion grew out of research activities undertaken in order to make maps of travel routes for a unit on the Westward Movement. Different individuals had assumed responsibilities and an excellent research period had just been completed.

Teacher: Let's share the different things that we found out about the routes of the pioneers, and consider the next steps that we should take.

Child A: I could find only one reference book on the Oregon Trail.

Child B: I think there are two others in the other bookcase.

Child C: I thought we agreed to keep all of the references on the trails in this one.

Child B: We did, but someone forgot.

Child D: It would help if we'd keep them all in the same place.

Teacher: Let's all remember to return them to the place that we decided we would use. What trails have you located?

Child E: I found something about the Sante Fe Trail.
Child A: What places did it go through?
Child E: I haven't been able to find that out yet.
Teacher: Perhaps we should make a note of that and other items that we need to find out.
Child G: Why don't we keep a list on the board as we did in the other unit?
Teacher: I think that is a good suggestion. John, would you be our recorder and put them on the board as the other students make their suggestions?
Child H: I will be glad to keep a list on paper at my seat so we'll have a written record.
Teacher: That will be very helpful.

Through similar evaluation discussions, the teacher can appraise cooperative efforts and help children determine ways and means of improving group action. Undoubtedly much of the learning that is secured through this process is more valuable than the many interesting and important items of information that are learned. One of the major outcomes is the ability to work and think together and to share ideas related to significant purposes established by the group.

DEMOCRATIC BEHAVIOR

Through cooperative group action, each child should develop increasingly higher levels of democratic behavior. In fact, cooperation, responsibility, concern for others, creativeness, and open-mindedness should permeate each group activity. A review of these categories of behavior (as presented in Chapter 1) should be made at this time with a special emphasis upon ways in which they may be developed in committee work, discussion and other types of group work presented in this chapter. If this is done, solid progress will be made in developing democratic behavior, and maximum value will be derived from group work.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Consider group techniques in the light of a unit of work you are planning. In what ways can you use the techniques suggested in this chapter?

2. What are some limitations of group techniques in the social studies? What are some dangers in overemphasizing them to the neglect

of individual skills and responsibilities? How can teachers plan for a balance between individual and group work so that both are strengthened?

3. Reread the steps in problem solving on pages 161-162. How can you use each step in a unit you are planning? Can you relate the various steps to specific problems and questions that will arise in the unit? Be practical and specific in your analysis.

4. Use the sociometric techniques suggested by Olson to study the group structure in the classroom in which you are teaching, or in one in which you are observing. Derive practical implications for planning and teaching.

5. Which of the suggestions made regarding committees are apropos of a group of children you are teaching or observing? Are there other points that are more pertinent because of specific problems that have arisen in their committee work? Always endeavor to make specific adaptations to the particular children with whom you are working.

6. Consider the section on discussion techniques in the same light as suggested immediately above. What changes or adaptations should be made?

7. Reread the sections on group planning, group action, and group evaluation. Is the teacher's role clear? Visit a classroom and observe a teacher in action guiding a group of children in planning and evaluation. Which techniques were used? Was guidance given to individual children? How were individual questions handled? Was commendation used to accentuate desirable behavior? Were specific points brought out in evaluation in a constructive manner? What points did you gain through the observation?

8. One of the best ways to evaluate group process skills is through directed observation. Reread the section in Chapter 1 in which democratic behaviors are presented. List one or two pertinent items of behavior under each heading—cooperation, responsibility, etc. Use this list as a guide to observe a group of children at work in the social studies. Which individuals are making sound growth? Which appear to be making little growth? What group activities can be provided to bring about improvement?

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7

AN OVERVIEW OF INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

Materials of instruction are vital components of learning experiences in the social studies. The social learnings resultant from the child's interaction with his environment are limited to a large degree by the materials with which he interacts. A dull, drab environment devoid of adequate materials offers very limited experiences as compared with one in which a variety of carefully selected instructional resources are used. In a balanced social studies program, the following types of instructional resources are used:

Community resources—field trips, resource visitors, persons to interview, field studies, service projects and surveys.
Audio-visual materials—models, specimens, objects, pictures, film strips, slides, motion pictures, recordings, radio, television, maps, globes, charts, graphs, and diagrams.
Construction, dramatic representation, and creative expression through art, music, and literature.
Reading materials—textbooks, references, encyclopedias, magazines, pamphlets and newspapers.

In this chapter attention is given to principles and procedures essential to effective selection and utilization of instructional resources. A point of view is developed as a frame of reference for considering the place of instructional materials in the social studies program. General guidelines applicable to all types of instructional resources are discussed. In subsequent chapters attention is given to specific techniques and procedures for the selection and utilization of community resources, audio-visual materials, construction, dramatic representation, and reading materials.

The significance of instructional resources and their utilization

Alameda County

A combination of children's drawings, models, objects, and labels was used to make this display depicting life on a rancho in early California. Why do materials used in this way help to make the past real and meaningful for children?

may be brought home sharply by considering the behavior of children studying Pioneer Life in two different situations recently visited by the writer. In one class, a basic textbook was being followed rather dogmatically, written exercises were required, and oral discussion was used to answer questions raised by the teacher. The children appeared to be uninterested and very little learning was in evidence. Communication of ideas was faulty and uncertain, concepts were being used inaccurately, several children seemed to dislike the social studies, and not one of them made comments which suggested that a real appreciation of living during the times of the pioneers was being developed. In addition, little related work was brought in, the general attitude of the group was poor, and information and understandings as measured by tests were below reasonable expectancies. In another class, in which a variety of materials was being used effectively—pictures, pictorial maps, films, several texts, realia, attractive bulletin boards, and materials for construction—a different atmosphere existed. Eager children were hard at work, dramatic play, construction, dis-

cussion, planning, and reporting were on a high level, concepts were being used effectively, attitudes toward the work being done were wholesome and positive, and significant learning was taking place according to test results and appraisals made by observation. Although many factors contributed to the differences between these two groups, a major one was the way in which instructional resources were being utilized.

What, then, is the place of materials in the social studies program? How should they be used to secure maximum learning? Let us give first consideration to a few basic guidelines that can be applied to all types of resources.

BASIC GUIDELINES

Materials of instruction, like methods of instruction, should be used to achieve specific purposes. They must be selected and used so that maximum learning is possible for children. Only those that contribute to the solution of problems and the achievement of purposes of a given group of children are appropriate for that group. The time allotted to the social studies is too short to bring in extraneous gadgets, devices, books, or other materials that do not contribute to the purposes of the program. If the goals of the social studies are to be achieved, considerable attention must be given to the selection and use of instructional materials.

Types of questions that teachers must raise when considering an instructional resource include:

What specific purposes can be achieved by using this resource?
Can growth in the child's insight into democratic behavior and group processes be secured by using this resource?
What attitudes, appreciations, and interests may be modified?
What concepts, understandings, and functional information can children develop through its use?
Will the social functions be made more meaningful?
Can communicative ability, research skills, and problem-solving ability be strengthened?

All too frequently attention is centered exclusively upon the facts presented; many other key learnings are overlooked. Each function of the social studies must be analyzed to determine the specific contributions that the use of selected materials may make to it.

This principle may be illustrated by considering ways in which motion pictures may contribute to the improvement of skill in critical

Los Angeles

Teacher-made charts can be used to define problems, summarize key ideas, present information, and guide evaluation. Try to anticipate ways in which you can use charts in a unit. See Chapter 12 for specific suggestions.

thinking. Children should be guided to discover how questions and problems are elaborated, opened up, and clarified in the film. How are the ideas presented, organized, and summarized? Do the conclusions, suggestions, or content square with other sources of information? Propaganda effects, use of props, use of music to produce various effects, and related emotion-stimulating devices should be considered in the light of such questions as: "Do they affect our judgment and stimulate an emotional reaction?" "Are our judgments and conclusions distorted?" "Are there ideas that we can use to improve our own skill in thinking?" It may be necessary to reshow the film in order to reconsider these and similar questions.

The varying levels of concreteness of experience with materials should be recognized. Dale's [1] analysis of materials in terms of levels of abstractness from direct experience to experiences with verbal

[1] Edgar Dale, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1954, pp. 42-56.

Richmond, California

Maps and other items made by children should be used in arranging displays. Can you think of other ways to use resources made by children in a unit you are planning?

symbols is helpful in considering instructional resources. He proposes the following order of decreasing directness of experiences, pointing out that the categories are somewhat overlapping.

1. *Direct, purposeful experience*—gardening, making something, weaving.
2. *Contrived experience*—operating a working model.

3. *Dramatic participation*—identification of self with others by participating in a play, tableau, or pageant; observing a play is on the next level.
4. *Demonstration*—observing as someone demonstrates a process or activity; a more direct type of experience if followed by doing.
5. *Field trip*—observing people at work or processes in a natural setting; more direct if interviewing is included.
6. *Exhibits*—seeing planned arrangements of materials; more direct if working models are used.
7. *Motion pictures and television*—watching a planned series of pictures with action and movement involved.
8. *Still pictures, radio, recordings*—seeing or hearing; these are one-dimensional aids.
9. *Visual symbols*—charts, graphs, and maps.
10. *Verbal symbols*—processes of reading, writing, speaking, listening.

Dale [2] goes on to point out that his list does not necessarily refer to the best type of experience to provide; it simply suggests an order of concreteness. The teacher must determine the best for a given class on the basis of maturity of the children, available time, problems that have arisen, availability of materials, and the unit of work being developed.

The classroom should be viewed as a laboratory—a planned environment—to stimulate learning.[3] Materials should be arranged in such a way as to focus the child's attention on key problems and questions. Different types of materials should be selected and used so that the classroom environment will help to move the thinking and planning of the group in profitable directions. The total over-all arrangement of the room, as well as the separate sections of the room such as the reading corner or bulletin board, should receive attention. Balance, timing, selectivity, and artistic arrangement are desirable. When the classroom is viewed as an arranged environment, a laboratory for social experiences, then instructional resources are used effectively.

The use of materials should be viewed as an integral part of the sequence of experiences in the unit of work. A study trip, textbook, pamphlet, moving picture, or film strip should be selected as needed to solve real-to-the-child problems. The smoother the transition from

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] G. L. Anderson, Gertrude Whipple, and Robert Gilchrist, "The School as a Learning Laboratory," *Learning and Instruction*, Forty-ninth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950, pp. 336-348.

problems, to solution of problems, to new problems, the more effective is the program in promoting learning. This may be illustrated in a unit on the Dairy Farm in which real need had arisen for the construction of a simple floor layout of a dairy farm, including barn, barnyard, and silo, to be used in dramatic play. Through group planning it was decided to visit a nearby dairy farm in order to secure ideas that could be used to make the floor layout. The teacher had observed many needs in dramatic play, and realized that a field trip would be the most helpful experience at the time. The problems involved were clarified through group planning and the trip was taken to secure information needed by the group. Following the trip to the farm, the group arranged the floor layout after making a corral and constructing some trucks to use in dramatic play. It should be emphasized that the making of the floor layout was done to satisfy the need for dramatic play, and not just to make a layout to show someone that the class could make layouts. The dramatic play was being carried out so that

Albany, California

Note the arrangement of desks, easels, and other facilities in this classroom. It is relatively easy to work out different space arrangements to provide for group work. Can you think of changes that might be made to suit various purposes?

the children could identify themselves with life on the dairy farm. Thus, in addition to the field trip, many other experiences and related materials were involved, such as floor layout, pictures, construction, and dramatic play. All of these were part of a smooth sequence of experiences; not one was brought in as a "sideshow."

In order to assure continuity of learning, the teacher must become well acquainted with the potentialities of various types of materials. Books, films, film strips, records, field trips—in fact, all materials of learning—must be explored or previewed before they are used in order to determine their possible contribution to experiences in the unit. Only then can they be related directly and immediately to needs of the class. For example, in the unit on the Dairy Farm mentioned above, the teacher had visited the dairy and knew that it was not too complex in organization for children in primary grades, that seeing the corral, barn, and silo would clarify key concepts, and that it was not beyond the maturity of the group. There is no substitute for firsthand experience on the part of the teacher to assure a real acquaintanceship with materials of learning.

Children must be ready for the use of selected instructional materials if maximum learning is to be achieved. A key question is: "Have real-to-the-child needs and problems arisen, or is the teacher trying to drag or push the materials into the program?" In a program in which children are moving from one experience to another as needs arise, the teacher is building the finest kind of readiness. Real readiness exists when teachers guide children in such a way that they raise such questions and comments as:

> Could we visit an airport to see how the planes are dispatched?
> Let's see that film strip again to see the loading of the planes.
> These pictures show how a plane is loaded.
> Where are the pictures we saw yesterday? We need to check up on something.
> What books have ideas on this?

In a live, dynamic program guided by a skillful teacher, readiness for new materials grows out of dramatic play, construction, research, discussion, planning, and evaluation. It is only in an artificial, teacher-imposed program that the teacher must go to great length to prepare the pupils for the material. This does not mean that adequate and skillful preparation need not be made for each type of material or experience; it simply means that there should be a real need for the

Los Angeles

Note the eye-catching quality in this display. Why do you think children will find it attractive? What are some of the questions children might ask about the objects shown?

means of films, pictures, and stories. Finally, by planning and developing a series of related experiences in which materials are used as problems arise, the teacher assures continuity of learning.

Equipment and materials used in the program should not draw attention away from significant social learnings. This has occurred in units on Indians and Pioneers in which realia such as tomahawks, knives, and muskets have been used for simulated wars and scalpings during a major part of the study. It has occurred in studies of Mexico in which there was an overemphasis upon recordings and films related to fiestas and folk dances. This is not a plea for the elimination of materials; it is a plea for emphasis upon significant outcomes in the

use of materials. Materials must contribute to learning, not detract from it! All materials should provide rich experiences and lead to new experiences and interests so that significant social learning takes place as each unit of work is developed.

Follow-up activities should flow naturally and reasonably out of each experience. Artificial assignments such as a test after each film should be avoided. The intelligent thing to do next may be dramatic play, construction, discussion, related reading, or the use of various media in art. What if the children who took the trip to the farm had returned to take a test on animals they had seen? Would this be related to the purposes of the excursion? Would this lead to a satisfaction of needs or the solution of their real problem? No! It simply would have been an artificial assignment based upon an outmoded conception of social learning as mere fact-getting.

Arbitrary rules of procedure cannot be followed dogmatically in the utilization of materials. In applying general rules for the use of field trips, films, recordings, or other types of materials, the teacher must exert sound judgment and make independent decisions as problems arise. For example, in one situation a teacher was unable to make specific plans prior to a radio program related to a unit on Growth of Democracy. In spite of this, the program was used most effectively because the teacher made careful notes during the program. While this type of deviation from recommended procedure should be avoided, in this instance it appeared to be the intelligent thing to do. Rules for using films, manuals which accompany film strips, radio guides, and the like are suggestive only, and creative teachers use them or modify them, depending upon the situation.

Materials should be organized and arranged in a systematic manner if maximum utilization is to be secured. One of the most effective ways to organize materials in the social studies is to place those related to a given unit in a kit in the sequence in which they will most likely be used. For example, in planning a unit on Mexico the related pictures, pamphlets, reference lists, construction plans, names of films and recordings, possible excursions, and other materials, or plans for their use, can easily be filed in a kit under appropriate headings. If certain items cannot be included, such as large realia and films, they should be noted in the unit plan with procedures for securing them. Each kit should be accompanied by a unit plan in which possible experiences and related materials are listed. The teacher may then use them as needs and problems arise. A variety of materials adequate to meet the individual differences of the class should also be included.

University Elementary School,
University of California at Los Angeles

Stand-patter dolls in authentic costumes add to the realism of an arranged environment.

use of the material or experience, and that children are made aware of the need.

Group planning, discussion, and evaluation are effective approaches to use in developing readiness for materials. Children should develop skill in the selection and use of materials and procedures as well as in getting facts and ideas from them. A persistent question is: "What devices and materials can be used to meet this need?" Critical thinking will be improved as children grow in ability to make more intelligent choices of sources of information. Children should also be given opportunities to evaluate the effectiveness of the materials in communicating ideas. If this is done, improvement in processes of problem solving, as well as in the learning of information, will be achieved.

Maximum learning can be secured only if plans are carefully made for the use of materials. Two types of planning are essential. First, the teacher should plan a unit in which major topics or problems with related experiences and materials are sketched. This sets the use

of materials in proper perspective, and enables the teacher to think through the selection, timing, and appropriateness of materials for different needs and problems. Secondly, attention must be given to the specific details involved in the use of different materials. The teacher must make sure that needed equipment is available, distracting elements are eliminated, purposes are clear, and necessary arrangements are made. For example, a field trip may be ruined if the guide has no knowledge of the purposes and level of understanding of the class. In order to prevent such difficulties, the teacher must plan specifically for the use of all materials.

Contrast the example of the class studying the Dairy Farm mentioned above with another class which is studying the same unit. The children enter and hear a record of animals on the farm; it is interesting but is not related to significant needs and problems of the group. The teacher reads a short story which is followed by coloring on dittoed sheets. This is "old stuff," but the children do it; they like the teacher. The "pictures" are put on the bulletin board. On the next day the children read a story silently and draw other pictures. On the following day a film strip is shown and discussed. This, too, has been done before. Children also tell about farms they have seen because the teacher asks them to. The pattern continues with the children engaging in a disconnected series of experiences in which various aids and activities are brought in rather haphazardly without real-to-the-child needs for their use.

Think of the increased value that would result if the use of the materials were based on real needs and on real problems. How much richer the learning would be if the sequence of experiences flowed naturally from one to the other as needs and problems changed. Yes, indeed! The teacher's role in planning for the employment of instructional resources becomes increasingingly significant as new materials are utilized in the social studies program.

New experiences with materials must be related to the child's background of experience in such a way that continuity of learning is assured. There should be no gaps in learning. Concepts, generalizations, attitudes, and other social learnings grow and develop as related experiences extend and enrich them. Strands of meaning built up in firsthand experiences become the child's background for comparing, distinguishing, and thinking about faraway places and past events. Discussion, questioning, research, dramatic play, construction, and varied expression should be used to relate new materials and learnings to previous learnings. Maps may be related to previous experiences by

Los Angeles

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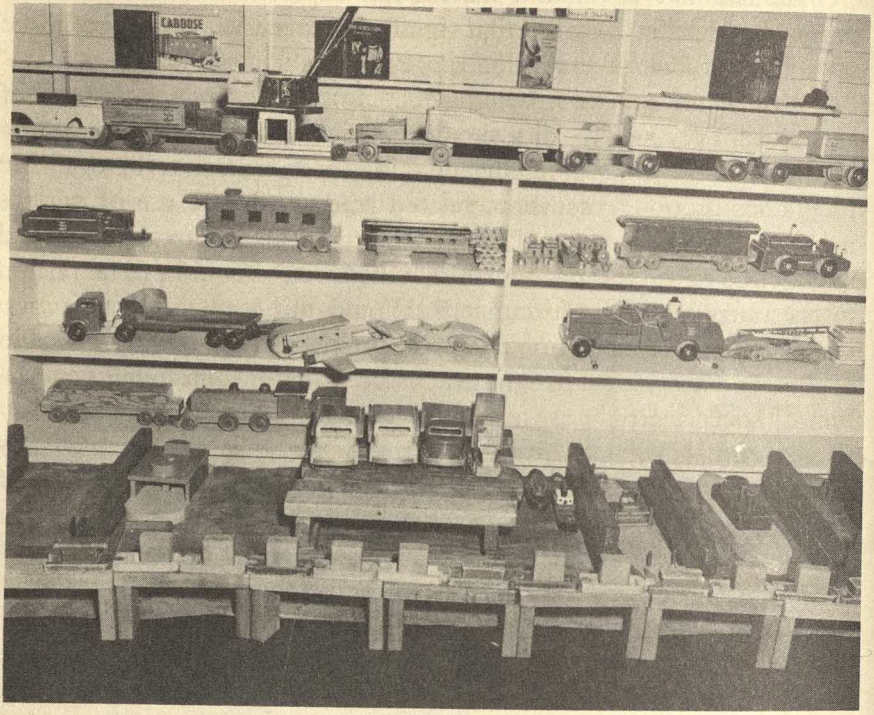

Albany, California

Young children need a variety of manipulative materials for use in experiences designed to improve the quality of social living. They also need a place to keep them so that they can develop responsibility for the care of materials. How might these be used in dramatic play?

Kits of this type have been found to be practical and helpful by many teachers.

A wide variety of materials is needed to promote social learning. It is impossible to use a single type of material and secure a meaningful solution to problems and needs that arise in the social studies. For example, in attempting to secure a realistic understanding of the way in which covered wagons were constructed and used, one group engaged in reading, looked at pictures, took a trip to the museum, examined realia, and actually constructed some models. In order to develop an appreciation of the difficulties of the pioneers in moving westward, use was made of films, film strips, maps, pictures, and reading materials. Similarly, other problems and topics in the social studies require the use of a variety of materials and procedures.

Materials of instruction should be evaluated before, during, and after utilization. Appraisal of materials is an essential aspect of selection and utilization. Only those materials that meet sound criteria should be selected for use in the program. Guidelines for selection are presented in the following section. Once materials are selected, their contribution to the program should be appraised critically to determine whether or not continued use is justified. During utilization the teacher should note pupil reactions to the material, giving attention to such items as interest, level of difficulty, vocabulary, provision for individual differences, and appropriateness to the maturity level of the group. Following utilization, attention should be given to the types of activity stimulated by the material and to significant outcomes such as concepts, appreciations, or changes in attitude. Continuous evaluation of this type leads to more effective utilization and to the development of a collection of instructional resources that have great value in promoting social learning.

SELECTION OF MATERIALS

Proper selection of materials must be based upon careful evaluation prior to utilization. It is folly to gamble children's time away by using materials whose values and contents are unknown. A film, field trip, recording, or book should meet sound criteria before it is used for instructional purposes. The criteria commonly used in the selection of various types of materials are discussed in the following pages.

PURPOSE. The clarification of the purpose for which a film, film strip, recording, or radio program is to be used is a first step in its evaluation. Both the purpose for which it has been produced and the specific purpose for which it is to be used should be determined. The latter may vary, since different teachers may use the same motion picture for different purposes. For example, one teacher used a motion picture on Mexico to give an overview in connection with an initiation of the unit, while another teacher used the same film to summarize key learnings. Both knew, however, that the film was designed to portray various aspects of living in Mexico in a broad, general way. As a basic guide, then, only those materials that contribute directly and specifically to significant purposes should be selected.

VARIETY. Variation of materials within limits that avoid confusion and overstimulation promotes interests and stimulates thinking. Far too many teachers fall into the rut of selecting one type of resource to the exclusion of most others. An important principle to keep in

mind is to select a variety of materials in line with changing needs and purposes so that children learn to use many different resources in problem solving. The teacher's goal is to select the particular aid which best fits a specific purpose at a given time.

If the purpose is to show concretely how something works, a working model should be secured. If a need has arisen to clarify the way in which an activity is carried out by a given group, weaving by Indians, for example, a silent motion picture will portray the action and movement adequately. Such purposes as learning about types of dwellings or homes may be met by using still pictures, which may be projected or unprojected, depending upon their size and whether or not individual or group activity is involved. Sound motion pictures are helpful in giving realistic conceptions of activities in which both sound and motion are important elements. Colored slides are helpful in studying types and colors of clothing and costumes, landscapes, and the arts and crafts of various peoples. Where sound alone is adequate, recordings, the radio, or transcriptions may be used. If the purpose is to see an activity in its natural setting, a field trip may be essential. After the purpose is clearly defined, the problem of selection is well begun.

Appropriateness to Maturity of Children. The level of difficulty of instructional materials must be appropriate to the maturity of the children who are to use them. References, films, maps, and other resources must be checked to determine concepts involved, skills needed for their effective use, and applicability to problems that the pupils are attempting to solve. Selected materials must be neither too difficult nor too simple if interest is to be held and maximum learning is to be achieved. A range of material wide enough to cover the individual levels of maturity within the class should be chosen.

Content. Significance and authenticity of content are essential criteria in the selection of materials. The nature of the content in a given film, film strip, radio program, or recording in large measure determines its potential contribution to the program. Authenticity, clarity of presentation, timeliness, distortion, propaganda, stereotypes, difficulty of concepts, and pertinence to topics included in the unit of work should be checked. The content should contribute directly to a clearer understanding of problems being considered, and should stimulate critical thinking, not detract from it. While this, of course, depends upon the manner in which a given resource is used, the teacher should be aware of the biases, mood, tone, and purpose of the writer or producer so that attention may be given to these factors during and

after utilization. Children should develop an awareness of bias, propaganda, and prejudice in the materials they use. The teacher's role is to guide children in the development of true impressions and accurate concepts through effective utilization of carefully selected materials.

PHYSICAL QUALITIES. The value of maps, motion pictures, or charts is greatly decreased unless physical qualities such as format, printing, sound, photography, and organization are satisfactory. Attractiveness, clearness of presentation, and continuity or sequence of ideas are significant determinants of educational value. Obviously, these criteria should be applied to the care and repair of materials as well as to their selection.

MANUALS. The manuals for teachers which accompany many maps, films, film strips, slides, recordings, radio programs, and books should be reviewed critically. Many of them contain helpful suggestions which should be consulted prior to utilization. This is especially important if it is impossible to preview the material before using it in the classroom, although this eventuality should be avoided if at all possible. In appraising manuals, attention should be given to practicality of suggestions, pertinence to the unit of work, desirability in terms of past experiences in the class, and ease of utilization. As with all guides designed for instructional use, adaptation must be made to the needs of the children who are to use the resource. In some instances manuals are provided which have not been tested in actual classroom situations, and their use may create difficulties instead of solving problems. This fact adds to the importance of previewing the resources and making specific plans for their utilization in terms of immediate needs.

TIME, EFFORT, EXPENSE. The time, effort, and expense involved in using instructional resources are important considerations. Some field trips involving traveling a great distance from school are highly desirable, but they are unnecessary if other available instructional resources are adequate. On the other hand, a given field trip may be more economical than other resources in terms of time, effort, and expense because of the educational values it possesses. At times a film strip may be more effective than a motion picture, or a set of flat pictures more valuable than a map. Of course, such decisions are relative and must be based upon the facts in a given situation. A basic consideration is the value of the material to the children for whom it is being selected.

RATING DEVICES. In many school systems it has been found helpful to organize rating cards or checklists which include criteria such

FILM APPRAISAL FOR PURCHASE–FORM 7
PASADENA CITY SCHOOLS

Title _____

Source _____ Price _____

Running time _____ Silent Sound Color

Rating: Excellent Good Fair Poor

Remarks: (Nature and appropriateness of content, Reactions)

_____

_____

_____

_____

School _____ Course _____

Suggested for: Grade level _____ Unit _____

Recommended adding to Library? _____ Date _____

Signature _____

(Front Side of Card)

Is the presentation tinged with propaganda? _____ If so, is the propaganda desirable? _____ Undesirable? _____ Directed toward advertising? _____ Directed toward upholding the American form of government? _____

Comments _____

Teaching values:	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Reject
Reliability	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Appeal to Pupils	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Sustained Interest	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Carry-over	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Tempo	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Continuity	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Technical Quality:					
Photography	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Sound	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Color	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

(Reverse Side of Card)

as those discussed above. With an objective rating sheet in hand it is much easier to appraise instructional materials. The example on page 198 is illustrative of those used to appraise films. Examples of rating devices that can be used to appraise other types of instructional material are given in later chapters.

EFFECTIVE UTILIZATION

Sound guidelines for using instructional materials are imperative if maximum values are to be achieved. Principles which the teacher can use in guiding the utilization of materials are just as important as the materials themselves. Obviously much harm can be done in terms of social learning if haphazardness and carelessness characterize the use of resources. The same painstaking care that is given to the selection of materials must also be given to their utilization.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES. The following checklist applies to the use of all types of instructional resources. It is based upon an analysis of suggestions made regarding the use of specific types of materials. It is presented in such a manner that it can be used as a checklist before using various materials, thus assuring more effective utilization.

CHECKLIST FOR PLANNING UTILIZATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

A. *Purpose:*

__Is the purpose clear? __How is this resource related to the unit?
__Are good human relations portrayed?
__Is democratic behavior shown?
__How does it fit into problem solving with other resources?
__What questions can be answered?
__What skills, attitudes and appreciations can be improved?
__Does the manual suggest practical and worth while purposes?

B. *Readiness:*

__Is the group ready? __What concepts need development?
__What experiences should be recalled and discussed?
__How can it be related to problems in the unit of work?
__What ideas need emphasis?
__What difficulties or understandings need explanation in advance?
__Is a new point of view presented?
__Does the manual suggest other techniques for use in introducing it?

C. *During Utilization:*

__Should children observe? __Take notes? __Raise questions?

__Should supplementary comments be made? __Should a break be allowed during utilization for rest, questions, comments?
__Should the resource be used in its entirety without interruption?
__Should the resource be used a second time to emphasize points, clarify questions, and make explanations?
__Should supplementary materials be used with it?
__Does the manual suggest activities for children?

D. *Follow-Through:*

__Is group discussion sufficient?
__Is group planning needed to explore new questions and problems?
__Can stated questions be answered?
__What conclusions can be made? __Should a summary be made?
__Should a short test be given on key ideas?
__Should other resources be consulted to check points at issue?
__Are related activities suggested, such as map making, chart making, reading, committee work, construction, dramatization, processing of materials, other activities?
__Does the manual suggest follow-through activities?

E. *Teacher Evaluation:*

__Was the resource satisfactory for the group involved?
__How can utilization be improved?
__Should supplementary resources be available prior to, or after, utilization?
__Any special difficulties that should be noted for future reference?
__Does the manual suggest points for evaluation?

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Recall vivid learning experiences you had in the elementary school. Can you remember the instructional materials that were a part of them? What other factors were involved?

2. The level of concreteness of materials is one factor to consider in selecting resources for a group. What are some other factors? Would learning in the social studies be increasingly more meaningful if only direct experiences were provided?

3. Discuss the role of children in the classroom when the classroom is set up as a laboratory of learning. Consider planning, care of materials, housekeeping jobs, group morale, concern for others, and sharing.

4. In some classrooms a film, film strip, demonstration, or other resource is used merely as a sideshow unrelated to significant purposes of the group. What steps can be taken to prevent this?

5. Visit an audio-visual materials center and examine the types of

resources available. Note those that might be useful in a unit you are planning to teach.

6. Examine one or more of the guides to free and inexpensive materials listed at the end of this chapter. Which materials appear to be related to a unit you are planning? Secure some by writing to the publisher of each item and appraise them in the light of the criteria presented in this chapter.

7. Examine the pictures in this chapter critically. Are there any changes you would make in some of the displays shown in the pictures if you were making them?

8. Select one instructional resource of your choice and make a tentative plan for using it. Use the checklist presented at the end of this chapter as a guide to planning.

9. Reread the section on problem solving presented in the chapter preceding this one. Note ways in which the instructional resources discussed in this chapter can be used under each step of the problem-solving process.

10. A noted teacher once said: "To know techniques is one thing; to know techniques and to use them in accord with sound principles of teaching is another thing." Discuss this in terms of the principles presented in this chapter. Can you summarize your point of view of the place of instructional materials in the social studies program?

REFERENCES

Allen, Jack (Ed.), *The Teacher of the Social Studies.* Twenty-third Yearbook. National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1952. Contains suggestions on types of activities and materials to include in a good program; emphasis is upon the role of the teacher.

Clapp, Elsie R., *The Use of Resources in Education.* Publication of the John Dewey Society. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952. Presents a point of view and principles for implementing the use of resources in our schools; good background material.

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Materials of Instruction,* Eighth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1935.

———, *Newer Instructional Practices of Promise.* Twelfth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1939, Chaps. IV, XI, XIV. Although published many years ago, this volume and the one above contain much that can be used today. The point of view and the specific suggestions for the use of materials are well worth reading.

Gilchrist, Robert (Ed.), *Creating a Good Environment for Learning.* Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1954. Presents broad principles for creating an environment conducive to learning; child development, mental hygiene, and other foundational factors are stressed.

National Council for the Social Studies. *How To Do It* Series. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association. This series contains a variety of 8-page leaflets on the use of films, maps, multiple textbooks, recordings, and other instructional materials; helpful to teachers and supervisors.

National Society for the Study of Education. *The Community School.* Fifty-second Yearbook. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953. The development and status of the community school with suggested principles for making every school an integral part of the community it serves; good background reading.

Potter, Gladys L., "Selecting and Using Instructional Materials," *The Principal and Curriculum Building.* Twentieth Yearbook, California Elementary School Principals Association, Oakland: The Association, 1948, pp. 100-114. A practical treatment of techniques to use in selecting resources; specific examples are given.

Quillen, I. James, and Lavone A. Hanna, *Education for Social Competence.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1948, Chap. IX. Although written for the secondary school teacher, the point of view regarding the use of current materials is basic reading for the elementary school teacher.

Wesley, E. B., and M. Adams, *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1946. Chapters XV, XVI, XVII present a well-rounded and down-to-earth treatment of the use of instructional materials in the social studies.

GUIDES TO FREE AND INEXPENSIVE MATERIALS

Information on where to secure free and inexpensive materials is presented in the following references:

Periodicals

"Pamphlets and Government Publications," and "Sight and Sound in Social Studies," *Social Education* (National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 16 St. N.W., Washington, D.C.)

"Free or Inexpensive," *NEA Journal* (National Education Association, 1201 16 St. N.W., Washington, D.C.)

"Educational Aids from Your Government," *School Life* (U.S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D.C.)

"Check List of New Audio-Visual Aids," and "Check List of New Publications," *School Executive* (American School Pub. Corp., 470 4th Ave., New York 16, N. Y.)

"Free and Inexpensive Material," *Booklist* (American Library Association, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago 11, Ill.)

"News of Latest A-V Materials," *Audio-Visual Guide* (Educational & Recreational Guides, Inc., 1630 Springfield Ave., Maplewood, N. J.)

"Helpful Teaching Materials for You," *The Instructor* (F. A. Owen Pub. Co., Danville, N. Y.)

OTHER SOURCES

Educators' Guide to Free Films (Educators' Progress Service, Randolph, Wis.). Published annually; arranged by curricular subjects; gives terms of loans.

Educators' Guide to Free Slide Films (Educators' Progress Service, Randolph, Wis.). Published annually; subject listing as above.

Elementary Teachers' Guide to Free Curriculum Materials (Educators' Progress Service, Randolph, Wis.). Published annually; indexed list arranged by subject.

Free and Inexpensive Learning Material (Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.). Lists free materials and some that must be purchased.

Free and Inexpensive Materials on World Affairs, by L. S. Kenworthy (Brooklyn College, Brooklyn 10, N.Y.). Includes bibliographies, general materials, films, pictures, resource units, exhibits, film strips, kits, maps, and other aids.

Pamphlet Index (Schulte Press, 119 West 23rd Street, New York 11, N.Y.). Published monthly. A catalogue of small publications on social affairs—labor, economics, human relations, social studies, international problems.

Selected United States Government Publications (Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.). A leaflet describing inexpensive government publications; many are useful in the social studies. Get on the mailing list by writing the address as shown.

Vertical File Service (H. W. Wilson Company, 950-72 University Avenue, New York 52, N.Y.). Published monthly. Booklets, pamphlets, leaflets, mimeographed materials arranged alphabetically by subject.

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION FOR WOMEN
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8 STUDYING THE COMMUNITY AND USING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The good elementary school is a community school. This is so because the relationships between school and community determine to a great extent the quality of the educational program. When the elementary school is conceived and operated as a community school the finest kind of school-community relationships are possible. As a result, both the child's learning and the life of the community are improved.

The community is the setting in which the child lives and learns; in it he develops the meanings and concepts essential to an understanding of group living; in it he experiences life in a democracy. The experiences he has in church, stores, theaters, home, neighborhood, and school become his background of meanings for study, thought, and expression. Out of all these experiences in the community come the backgrounds for developing an understanding of human relationships and processes of living.

The local community is the maturing child's laboratory for learning about man's way of living. In the community the child can explore and study in a firsthand way the basic social functions of group living. The child can develop increasingly deeper insight into social functions by experiencing them directly in his daily living and, under teacher guidance, by comparing ways of living in his community with those in other communities. As he matures he can use ideas gained about social functions in American communities and note likenesses and differences in cultures in other parts of the world. The richer the experiences the child has in his community, the greater will be his comprehension of ways of living elsewhere.

Some of the richest instructional resources for the social studies

can be found in the local community.[1] For example, field trips can be taken to an airport, dairy farm, newspaper, or to other places being studied. Resource visitors can be invited to discuss topics, give demonstrations, and share materials. Local radio and television programs, published materials, and audio-visual materials can be used as various needs arise. Individuals can be interviewed in connection with specific problems in the social studies. Children can cooperate in local service projects and thus become participants in community activities. The child's own daily experiences in the community are also a resource which can be used to enrich discussions and to promote sharing of ideas.

STUDYING THE COMMUNITY

The first step the teacher should take in planning for the use of community resources is to make a community survey. Such a survey may be brief and related specifically to educational resources, or it may be a detailed analysis of background conditions, depending, of course, on whether or not time and personnel permit.

The checklist below is illustrative of items to note in a relatively simple survey of community resources that can be carried out by the teacher alone. The checklist has been used successfully by many teachers to note resources to use in units of work. The list of resources under each item will grow as the teacher gains experience in the community and continues to search for educational resources.

Checklist for Studying Community Resources

1. Field (or study) trips (industries, museums, etc.): _____
2. Resource visitors (come to your class—panel or individuals): _____
3. Radio and television (travel programs, historical plays): _____
4. Published materials (newspapers, libraries, chamber of commerce bulletins): _____
5. Persons to interview (travelers, policemen): _____

[1] For a detailed analysis of community resources see Edward G. Olsen, *et al.*, *School and Community* (2nd ed.). New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954; and Edward G. Olsen (Ed.), *School and Community Programs*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949.

6. Welfare and service organizations (Red Cross, service clubs): _____
7. Service projects (relief programs, clean-up): _____
8. Possible field studies (housing, safety): _____
9. Visual resources (pictures, realia): _____
10. Local current events (campaigns, drives): _____
11. Resources within the school (collections of materials, teachers who have traveled): _____
12. Community recreational resources (parks, camping facilities): _____
13. Population resources (individuals, folk festivals): _____
14. Others: _____

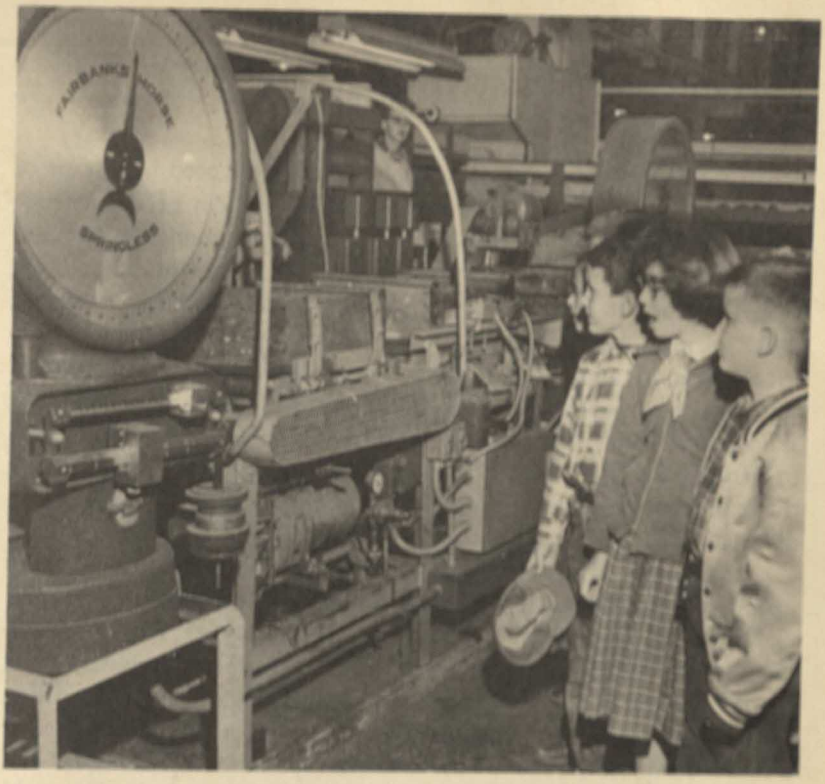
A more detailed community study should include background factors and conditions.[2] An analysis of detailed surveys indicates that the following topics are usually included:

History of the community
Population
Home and family life
Government
Organized group life
Communication and transportation
Public and private welfare agencies
Natural resources
Health and safety
Recreational opportunities
Conservation
Industry and commerce
Art, music, and literature
Educational opportunities

After the study has been completed, the following types of resources should be noted and used by teachers:

Field trips
Resource visitors
Persons to interview
Published materials
Audio-visual materials
Service activities
Field studies
Children's surveys
Recreational facilities
Cooperating agencies

[2] See Olsen, *op. cit.*



San Diego County

The world of work, science in industry, processing of materials, wise use of resources . . . . these and other concepts can be introduced to children through the use of community resources.

In making a survey many sources of information are available. The following are examples:

Teachers
Old-timers
County agricultural agents
Chamber of Commerce
4-H Club leaders
Tourist maps
Census reports
Parents
Courthouse records
Newspaper files
City directory
Weather reports
Local maps
School records
Library files
Businessmen
Government officials
Social workers
Community workers
School officials
Industrial reports
Special editions of local newspapers
Pamphlets from agencies

TECHNIQUES FOR STUDYING THE COMMUNITY

Information about the community may be secured by means of individual or group interviews, observation, analysis of documents, field work, participation in community groups, questionnaires, and informal discussion. The techniques to be used should be selected with reference to information needed, time and resources available, extent of need for different types of data, access to specialized assistance, and funds and clerical help available. For example, many groups have not been able to do extensive field work because of limited staff and lack of funds, but all can use individual and group interviews. In general, however, all of the foregoing techniques should be used; the extent to which each is used will vary with local needs and conditions.

INTERVIEW. By interviewing key individuals, or carefully selected groups of individuals, much data can be secured quickly and efficiently. Both individual and small group interviews are helpful in determining the value of community resources, exploring controversial issues, getting leads to valuable documents, determining attitudes, securing unpublished information, and exploring the possibilities of a more complete survey of the community. In both individual and group interviews essential principles of procedure include the establishment and maintenance of rapport and the skillful yet unobtrusive guiding of the conversation or discussion. Although for general purposes the group interview is probably more promising and effective than the individual interview, both have a place in a well-planned community study.

OBSERVATION. Observation is a helpful device for noting industries, types of residences, housing conditions, safety hazards, types of stores, condition of parks and playgrounds, the location of trailer camps, and so forth. Directed observation during tours planned for the study of specific factors will yield much information. Data on changing conditions and new developments can be gathered by a continuing process of incidental observation. Both directed and incidental observation should be used as part of a larger plan and for specifically defined purposes. Awareness of and alertness to information needed in the complete study are essential for effective observation, whether it be incidental or directed.

DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS. Published materials which yield valuable data are readily available for survey use. Efforts should be made

to discover those available in a given community because of the rich store of material they contain. Especially helpful are the following:

Census Reports: In 400 depositories and libraries throughout the country, or from Bureau of Census, Washington, D.C., Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office. (See the public library.)
Local newspapers and magazines.
Local libraries—files of community material, articles, pamphlets, studies.
Bulletins of state governmental agencies.
Bulletins of local governmental agencies.
Reports of the Chamber of Commerce, business groups, labor groups.
Pamphlets from museums.
Reports of social service agencies.
Reports of planning commissions and recreation groups.
School records.
Community surveys and studies done by local groups.
Reports of civic associations, historical and scientific societies, service clubs, churches, home bureaus, farm bureaus, women's organizations, minority group associations, patriotic associations.
Studies made by colleges and universities.

In analyzing published materials available in a given community, efforts should be made to organize the material in a manner that will promote classroom use. This may be done by (a) organizing a handbook of community materials and resources, (b) incorporating the material and selected references into units of work, (c) including materials and references in the courses of study, (d) preparing a special series of community life bulletins, (e) developing a reference volume on community information for school use, and (f) preparing kits containing materials that teachers can use in the classroom. In general the material will be used most effectively if it is organized in a form in which its use is clearly indicated; in units of work, in courses of study, or in teaching kits, for example.

Questionnaires. Although the use of questionnaires is fraught with many dangers and limitations, they are helpful in securing information on opinions, attitudes, problems, needs, and for collecting certain types of data that may be gathered in a checklist form. For example, opinions on school problems, attitudes toward camping experiences, the importance of selected school-community problems,

and information about hobbies, interests, and use of community facilities may be sampled by questionnaires. Questionnaires dealing with such topics should be impersonal, simple, and arranged in a yes-no checklist, multiple choice, or short answer form. Skillfully used, they are great time-savers; poorly prepared and unwisely used, they are valueless. As a general rule, questionnaires should be used only when time is of the essence and the data are not otherwise available.

ORGANIZING A SURVEY GROUP. Careful planning and organization are needed if it is decided to organize a group to carry out a community survey.[3] The survey group should be selected carefully to assure balance of personnel, wide participation, and complete coverage of essential material. A chairman is necessary to coordinate the efforts of the group. A curriculum expert, a librarian, an audio-visual specialist, subject matter specialists, principals, and supervisors have many contributions to make. If they are available, much help may also be secured by consulting sociologists, psychologists, and geographer-geologists. But the most valuable single person is the classroom teacher himself, who in the course of the survey discovers ways and means of improving the curriculum of the children with whom he is working. The teacher's problems and concerns are an excellent starting point, and may well be used as leads to plan the survey, to secure consultants, and to organize the material. Teachers of all levels and from different areas of specialization, such as science, social studies, art, and music, should be included. Finally, the group should organize itself into working committees to collect and organize material on the topics and problems selected for study.

Information about the community should be gathered and compiled in a manner that will facilitate the drawing of implications for the curriculum. The group making the survey should plan carefully the topics to be included, the material needed, and the manner of reporting—all with a view to increasing the use of the survey for curriculum improvement. The importance of such planning is underlined by the fact that many surveys have been made and then filed away because implications for the curriculum were vague and difficult to derive. For some phases of the study, pupils may prove to be quite helpful.[4] For example, pupils can study and report safety factors, health needs, gardening possibilities, possible field trips, housing construction, and similar activities. Obviously, much guidance and planning are essential to give direction to the efforts of students and to

[3] See Olsen, *op. cit.*

[4] Paul Hanna, *Youth Serves the Community*. New York: Appleton-Century, 1936.

prevent exaggeration, boasting, overemphasis, and neglect of larger problems. All of this does not imply that a large, complex group is needed to undertake a community study. In fact, a most profitable study may be done by the teacher alone, or by the staff of a small elementary school.

USING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

After a study of the community has been completed, available resources should be used to enrich the curriculum. All resources should be used by the teacher in accordance with sound principles of procedure if maximum learnings are to be achieved. Pre-planning, clarification of purposes, teacher-pupil planning, sound guidance during use of resources, and teacher-pupil evaluation are essential general considerations. To achieve greatest efficiency, it is necessary to consider specifically each type of resource and the problems incident to its use. In the remainder of this chapter attention is given to daily experiences, field trips, resource persons, interviewing resource persons, field studies, and service projects.

Daily Experiences. The day-by-day experiences of children in the community constitute one of the most valuable community resources. As children go about the community, see buildings under construction, watch changes in the season, see workers in action, observe holidays and celebrations, participate in observances and commemorations, enjoy radio and television, hear and discuss current events, buy articles in stores, utilize the transportation system, attend churches, and engage in a host of other community activities, they inevitably learn very much and also are stimulated to raise questions. Alert teachers capitalize upon these experiences and use them to the fullest in the social studies. Questions are considered in discussion; current events of significance to the group are considered; ways to utilize community services and related responsibilities are discussed; comparisons are made between the child's experiences in his community and the experiences of others in different communities; misconceptions are clarified; and attention is given to an ever increasing understanding of the importance of cooperation, responsibility, and concern for others in every facet of community living.

In order to utilize daily experiences of children in the community, the teacher must be a persistent student of children's activities in the community. What games and activities do they enjoy after school? What are their television and motion picture preferences? Do they

San Diego County

The human activities that children experience in their community provide opportunities to extend and enrich learning in the social studies. What activities in your community should be made a part of the instructional program?

utilize library and park facilities? Do they participate in scouting activities? Is there a Y program? What problems are of concern to them as children? What questions do they have? Which aspects of community life are directly related to the social studies? By observing children in the community, discussing children's activities with others, and having planned classroom discussions with children, answers to the foregoing questions can be secured and used to enrich children's learning in school and living in the community.

FIELD TRIPS. Field trips planned to solve needs and problems that arise in the social studies make many contributions to social learning. Concepts and understandings may be developed, extended, and clarified. Specific answers to questions may be secured. Increased appreciation of the relationship between units being studied in school and

Alameda County

How do cows get their food? Who feeds them? When do they eat? Can we see them eat? These and other questions can be answered by a carefully planned study trip.

the outside world of reality is possible. Improved attitudes may result as children come face to face with persons and objects encountered on an excursion. Growth in skills of observation, recording, questioning, and interviewing is possible. Critical thinking is sharpened as children check data gleaned from excursions with material presented in texts and pamphlets. Firsthand knowledge of the operation of basic social functions is gained as transportation, communication, production, conservation, and recreation are studied in operation. From the child's point of view, field trips provide much practical and concrete material for the solution of problems in the social studies.[5]

Many different types of field trips are taken in live, dynamic social studies programs. They may be completed within a class period, a full day, or a period of several days. At times they may be taken with the child's parents over the week end. Children themselves may go on hikes to find the solutions to problems that have arisen. The whole class or a selected group may be involved.

There are many opportunities in the social studies for the use of field trips. The following suggestive list illustrates the possibilities discovered by a group of teachers in a small elementary school. Several of them later were incorporated in units of work in the program. This is a significant point, as excursions are of greatest value when planned as an on-going part of problem-solving experiences in the unit of work.

Field Trips in the Community

Aquarium
Airport
Art gallery
Bakery
Bottling works
Broadcasting station
Cannery
Courthouse
Dairy
Docks
Factories
Farms
Firehouse
Forest service
Historic homes
Housing construction
Lake
Library
Lumber mill
Mission
Museum
Newspapers
Observatory
Parks
Petroleum company
Plant nursery
Police station
Post office
Railroad station
River
Road construction
Sawmill
Shipyard
Stores
Telephone exchange
Zoo

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[5] See Olsen, *op. cit.;* and Henry C. Ayteo, "The Excursion in Social Education," *Audio-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies*, Eighteenth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1947, pp. 33-52.

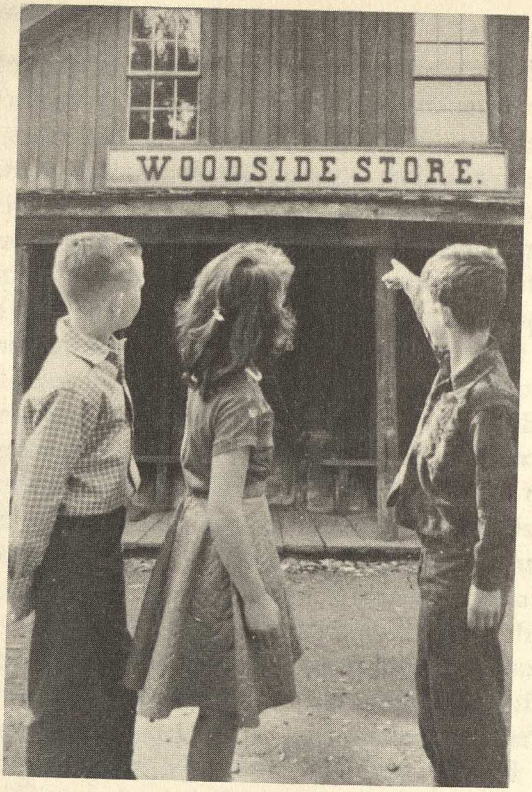
Some of the most valuable field trips are informal walks that can be taken in the immediate neighborhood. Examples include short walks to see a house being built, changes in the season, operation of a ditch-digging machine, a special garden, soil erosion, a collection of pictures and objects, or a modern bakery. Or children may take a short walking trip to gather specimens, see an old building, study architectural changes in the neighborhood, visit an expert to secure answers to questions, study safety problems, and the like. Walking trips such as these are informal and easy to plan, require a minimum of organization, save time, and make children more critical observers of the immediate environment. They can be used as needed to secure information needed in problem solving; they also provide excellent readiness for longer, more involved field trips. The mistake should never be made of overlooking walking trips in the neighborhood in favor of extensively planned field trips. There is a place for both, of course, and alert teachers plan accordingly in terms of the specific questions and problems that arise in the unit of work.

Each teacher should study his community to determine the field trips that will contribute to the experiences he is planning in the social studies. In many school systems, it has been found helpful to prepare a handbook for the use of excursions. In it should be recorded the field trips appropriate to units of work in the social studies as well as in other areas of the curriculum. Essential items regarding each trip are:

1. Name, telephone number, and address of the person to contact.
2. Possible contribution to the unit—concepts, information, and so forth.
3. Ages for which it is appropriate.
4. Size of group that may be accommodated.
5. Safety factors.
6. Time, distance, mode of travel, route to follow.
7. Best time to visit, length of visit.
8. Eating facilities
9. Toilet facilities.
10. What to see along the way.
11. Resource materials available.
12. Special notes or suggestions.

A handbook facilitates the use of excursions and saves time for the persons with whom trips are planned, as well as for the teacher.

Planning Field Trips. The one great differentiating feature between a field trip and just going somewhere is that a real educational purpose exists for the field trip. Careful planning is essential in



Burbank

Are there any restored buildings in your community that can be visited? What specific information and concepts should children gain from such visits?

order to assure the achievement of learnings which will be of greatest value to the children.

Group planning through discussion is one of the most effective techniques that can be used. Attention should be given to the purpose of the trip, ways to record information, safety precautions, time schedule, travel arrangements, wearing apparel, standards of behavior and procedures to follow during the visit.

Health and safety precautions should be given thorough consideration. Rules for crossing the street, staying with the group, and general safety should be discussed. Hazards with reference to machinery, traffic, rivers, lakes and similar items should be noted. Each child should know what to do in case of an emergency on the bus or at the place to be visited.

Standards of courtesy and protection of property should be dis-

cussed. Each child has a responsibility to be courteous to the bus driver, the manager of the place being visited and the guide. Respect for property both on the bus and at the location of the visit should be uppermost in mind. Reasons for not marking or defacing property should be discussed. Children should be urged to thank the individuals who made the trip possible before they return home.

The importance of cooperating with the bus driver should be brought out in a meaningful way to each child. For example, if the children are fairly quiet the bus driver will be able to hear signals and sirens, and thus handle the bus in a safe manner. Each child should also understand that he must stay in his seat so that the bus driver can have a full view at all times and so that no accident will occur if a quick stop is necessary.

Any parents who accompany the group on the trip should understand the major purposes to be achieved. Specific instructions should be given them regarding ways they are to help. For example, if they are responsible for a group of eight children they should learn the names of the children in their group and carry out specific directions regarding standards and regulations that have been set up. The parents should be introduced to the children for whom they are responsible, and the children should understand how they are to help on the trip.

If a bus is to be used for transportation, plans should be made for appropriate activities during the ride from the school to the destination. Quiet games which are appropriate include finding pictures on signs related to topics being studied in school, finding certain letters on signs, counting certain types of buildings, and seeing interesting bridges, factories, or other objects along the way. Those who sit next to the windows on the outgoing trip should trade places on the return trip with children who have had aisle seats, so that everyone will have an opportunity to observe important places along the way.

It is important for the teacher to make plans for a last minute check just before the trip begins. The physical condition of each child should be noted and children who are ill should be left with the school nurse or the principal. Each child should have a slip signed by his parents granting permission to take the trip. Dress and appearance should be noted and children wearing a flowing scarf or similar item that might get caught in machinery should be requested not to wear it at the place of the visit. Individual and group assignments should be clarified. Essentials of good behavior and safety should be reviewed. Provision should be made for each child to get a drink and go to the toilet just before the trip begins.

Adequate provision should be made for any children who for one reason or another cannot go on the field trip. The principal should have a list of all children who are not scheduled to go and a note on plans that have been made for them—such as working in another teacher's room or working in the library.

The teacher's role at the place of the visit is that of a general supervisor. Explanations should be made as needed; questions should be raised when something is not clear to the group; difficult terms should be explained; behavior problems should be met as they arise; and contact should be kept with all children. Since the group is representing the school, attention should be given as needed to any boisterousness, misconduct, or carelessness. Directions should be given as needed to any parents who are assisting with the supervision of the group. The group should be kept together and the time schedule should be maintained. Any signs of fatigue or emotional disturbance should be noted and steps should be taken to alleviate them. Before leaving the place of the visit, a check should be made to see that no one has left anything, and the roll should be double checked to make certain that no child has been left behind! Thanks should be expressed to everyone who assisted with the field trip.

It is sound procedure to summarize specific plans on charts, on the chalkboard, or on duplicated sheets of paper so that important points are clear to each member of the group. Charts 1 and 2 are illustrative of the planning done by a Grade I group who took a short walk to a grocery store.

LET'S FIND OUT

1. Where are vegetables kept?
2. How is meat kept fresh?
3. What is in the storeroom?
4. Who keeps the shelves full?

Chart 1

OUR WALK TO THE STORE

1. Stay together.
2. Watch where you walk.
3. Ask questions in turn.
4. Listen to the answers.

Chart 2

After their walk to the store, the children engaged in dramatic play and developed the needs for materials shown in Chart 3, thus putting to use the information secured from the field trip.

We Need for Our Play	
A grocery store	Counters
Tables	Delivery trucks
Cash register	Shopping bags
Vegetable stand	An ice box

Chart 3

An advanced type of planning for a field trip to an airport is illustrated in Charts 4, 5, and 6, which were developed by a Grade VI group. The charts were made by the members of the class with the teacher serving as discussion leader and a child as the recorder. The class was divided into four committees, each committee being responsible for six of the questions in Chart 6.

A Safe Trip

1. Stay in your group.
2. Keep in line.
3. Listen to directions.
4. Keep moving with the class.
5. Touch only those things suggested by the guide.
6. Bring a raincoat.

Chart 4

Things We Want to See

1. Administration building
2. Control tower
3. Planes landing and taking off
4. Runways, beacons, and wind sock
5. Food preparation center
6. Different types of planes
7. Weather bureau
8. Teletype machines
9. Maintenance shops
10. Service trucks
11. Ticket and baggage office
12. Parts of plane
13. How planes are repaired

Chart 5

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13. How planes are repaired

Chart 5

QUESTIONS WE WANT TO ANSWER

1. How many passengers does a DC-6 carry? DC-7? DC-8?
2. What airlines use the airport?
3. How many planes come in to the airport each day?
4. How high off the ground is the cockpit where the pilots sit?
5. How long are the runways at the airport?
6. How many runways at the airport?
7. At what altitude does a westbound plane travel? Eastbound? Northbound? Southbound?
8. What kinds of cargo are the planes carrying?
9. From where do the planes come?
10. How many men work in the control tower?
11. What do these men do?
12. What is a log?
13. How many instruments does the plane have on the control board?
14. What do these instruments tell the pilot?
15. How many pounds of baggage is one passenger allowed?
16. Where does the crew put the gasoline in the airplane?
17. What is the airfield made of?
18. How long does it take a pilot to get a commercial license?
19. What does one have to study in order to become a pilot?
20. How many seats in an airplane?
21. How is the cargo held steady in an airplane?
22. Where are the stewardess' quarters?
23. How does she prepare the food for the passengers?
24. How many hours does it take to fly from Oakland to Los Angeles? New York? Chicago? Portland? Paris?

Chart 6

Many teachers have found it helpful to use a checklist in order to assure effective planning of field trips. The following checklist was developed by teachers in a curriculum workshop.

GUIDE FOR THE PLANNING OF FIELD TRIPS

First Considerations

_____Is it the best procedure for the purposes of the group?
_____Is this experience appropriate for the children?
_____Have adequate backgrounds, needs, and purposes been developed?
_____Are related materials available—films, books, pictures?

_____Are there profitable follow-up activities?
_____Are physical conditions satisfactory—weather, safety conditions in places to be visited?
_____Will it strengthen the school-community relations?
_____Others: _____

Preliminary Arrangements

_____Has administrative approval been given?
_____Has the teacher made a preliminary visit?
_____Has the approval of parents been secured?
_____What number may be adequately accommodated?
_____Are eating and toilet arrangements satisfactory?
_____Has the time schedule been prepared?
_____Has the guide been advised on problems, needs, and maturity of the group?
_____Have travel arrangements and expenses been arranged?
_____Are assistants needed to help supervise the group?
_____Has a list been made of the names, telephone numbers, and addresses of those children who are going?
_____Others: _____

Teacher-Pupil Planning

_____Are questions prepared and understood?
_____Are recording procedures and assignments clear?
_____Are reporting procedures and assignments clear?
_____Have behavior standards been developed?
_____Have safety precautions been considered?
_____Have the time schedule, travel arrangements, and expenses been clarified?
_____Have significant side interests been noted?
_____Has attention been given to adequacy of dress?
_____Are monitorial assignments clear?
_____Others: _____

Follow-Up Plans

_____Do next experiences follow naturally?
_____What findings are to be reported?
_____What summaries and records should be made?
_____Is attention given to the development of charts, maps, diagrams, murals, models, scrapbooks, construction, dramatic play, and floor layouts?
_____Are assembly programs, newspaper articles, exhibits, or displays appropriate?
_____May findings be shared with other classes?

_____Are procedures in mind to discover and clarify misconceptions?
_____Are interesting sidelights to be considered?
_____Are letters of appreciation and samples of follow-up work to be sent?
_____How is behavior of the children to be evaluated?
_____How are recording and reporting procedures to be evaluated?
_____Others: _____

RESOURCE VISITORS. Resource visitors can make many realistic contributions to the social studies program. Community studies are enriched when firemen, policemen, newspapermen, and other workers meet with the class to discuss needs, problems and questions that have arisen. In units on Indians, Life in South America, and Life in China much help can be secured from individuals who are natives of the culture or who have made firsthand visits to the culture. Needs and problems which arise in units on Industrial America, Aviation, Transportation, Lumbering, and Marketing may profitably draw upon individuals who are well acquainted with them. The showing of realia, pictures, slides, and bulletins along with the discussion enhances the contributions of resource visitors.

A suggestive list of resource visitors compiled by one group of teachers in a social studies workshop included:

Airport employees
Authors
Businessmen
City officials
Consuls of foreign nations
Dairymen
Ex-servicemen
Farmers
Fellow teachers
Firemen
Foreign students
Forest rangers
Gardeners
House builders
Industrial workers
Leaders of youth organizations
Librarians
Merchants
Ministers
Musicians
Newspapermen
Nurserymen
Old-time residents
Policemen
Professional men—doctors, lawyers, dentists, teachers
Representatives of service organizations
School administrators
Ship workers
Social workers
Soil conservationists
Store clerks
Traffic safety specialists
Travelers

A sound procedure is to organize a file of resource persons who can make valuable contributions to the social studies program. A

simple card system can be used by noting the following information on cards 3 x 5 inches:

Contribution _____

Name _____ Telephone _____

Hours available _____

Will come to school? _____

Children may visit at home or office? _____

_____

Comments _____

_____

In building up a file of resource visitors, it is wise to interview fellow teachers and other school workers to determine which individuals can make a real contribution. It is not wise to send out random questionnaires because it is possible that individuals who cannot make the kind of contribution that is needed by the children in the class may volunteer. A serious public relations problem may thus be created.

Careful timing and planning are needed to secure maximum benefits from resource visitors. As with the field trip, visitors should be invited when they can contribute to on-going class activities, and when fruitful follow-up activities may make use of their special contributions. The following guidelines are helpful: [6]

1. Through group discussion determine whether or not the use of the visitor is the best way to secure required information on existing needs and problems.
2. Clarify and list the specific needs and questions on which help is desired.
3. Select a resource person who can make a rich contribution.
4. Plan with the visitor, giving attention to needs and questions, timing, interests and age level of group. Give special attention to vocabulary and illustrative materials that may be used.
5. Make plans with the children for receiving the visitor, introductions, expression of appreciation, behavior standards, and recording procedures.
6. Both the teacher and children should be ready to raise questions and state problems.

[6] See Olsen, *op. cit.*, pp. 128-136.

7. The teacher should guide the discussion and stimulate group thinking as needed.
8. Use the information to solve problems and to further expression through reporting, art, writing, dramatization, and so forth.
9. Evaluate the effectiveness of the use made of the information secured.
10. Write a letter of appreciation including (if possible) material showing how the contribution was used.
11. Continue the unit, moving on to new needs and problems that have arisen.

INTERVIEWING RESOURCE PERSONS. An interview is a desirable procedure to use when it is impractical for a resource person to come to school, essential materials must be kept on the job, and it is more beneficial to see the person in a working situation. Interviews may be conducted by an individual pupil or by a small group. In making plans for them, attention should be given to the same type of planning carried out for the use of resource visitors. In addition, attention must be given to good interviewing technique. The following points illustrate the standards that can be set up through cooperative group planning:

1. Introduce yourself.
2. State questions clearly.
3. Listen attentively.
4. Let the other person talk.
5. Ask questions on special points.
6. Take notes on hard points.
7. Don't waste time.
8. Express thanks when finished.

FIELD STUDIES BY CHILDREN. Units in the social studies present many needs and problems that can be solved by means of simple field studies carried out by the children themselves. Illustrative examples include studies on housing construction, farming, dairying, transportation services, communication facilities, industries, markets, local government, health services, safety hazards, natural resources, communications, art and music, stories about our town, and contributions of various nationalities. Field studies may be long, intensive studies or short reports, depending upon the problems and purposes at hand.[7] They may involve a single technique, such as interviewing, or include several procedures, such as trips, observation, library research, confer-

[7] For good illustrations, see Villa B. Smith, "A Field Study from the Terminal Tower in Cleveland," *Audio-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies*, pp. 53-60, and Paul Hanna, *op. cit.*

Oakland

Resource visitors add much to the realism of various units by giving demonstrations and sharing experiences with the group. Here Mrs. Necoline Dumas demonstrates spinning.

ences, analyses of local bulletins, questionnaires, and interviews. The value to the children, in light of their needs and problems, determines the scope and extent of a field study.

The use of field studies helps to develop many different insights, appreciations, and skills related to study techniques and problem-solving. Increased knowledge about interdependence of people, social interaction, social functions, and citizenship as dynamic factors in community living may be developed. The first ideas about the community gained by children in an incidental, unorganized manner may be clarified, extended, and sharpened as a result of a field study.

In preparing for the field study, guidelines should be established to direct the studying and planning of the group. In general it is sound procedure to start with specific questions and problems raised by the group. For example, one class set up the following list of questions for use in interviewing resource persons in connection with a study of the development of their community:

When was our town started?
Where were the first buildings located?
Where was the first post office?
Are any of the first houses still standing?
How did the people here travel in the early days?
What contributions did early settlers make to the development of our town?

A successful field study made by children depends upon several factors. The teacher should know the community thoroughly so that appropriate guidance may be given. Committees and individuals should be helped to understand the techniques to be used, get acquainted with the sources of data, and work tactfully and efficiently as they contact individuals and groups in the community. Frequent reports to the class should be made, with ample time for replanning, discussion, and synthesis of material.

A word of caution is needed apropos of surveys conducted by school children: Studies of topics and problems that are controversial to the point of causing intense feeling and reaction belong in the hands of more experienced individuals. Irreparable damage may be done if a study of highly controversial issues is undertaken by children. Intense intercultural conflicts and certain minority-group problems, for example, should be avoided. This is not meant to imply that no controversial issues should be studied; rather, sound guidance can lead children to study problems that they can handle without jeopardizing the welfare of any group in the community, and that are within the capacities of the group.

The findings of a community study should be shared with other classes and with groups in the community. Exhibits, newspaper releases, summaries, radio broadcasts, school assemblies, evening programs, talks to local clubs and service groups, panel discussions, debates, and dramatization have been used effectively in many communities. Such projects give added significance to a survey, provide opportunities for children to use and develop important skills, bring school and

community closer together, and frequently result in the improvement of community living.[8]

An excellent keystone to a survey is community and school action. A question that should be constantly in mind is: "How can the findings of our study be used in the community?" The answer may be found in projects such as clean-up drives, developing nature trails, improving safety regulations, planting trees and shrubs, planning a children's museum, or making reports to appropriate agencies.

COMMUNITY SERVICE

Richer social learnings for children are made possible when a two-way relationship exists between the school and the community. The school should receive much aid from the community, and it should render service to the community through educational projects. Merely permitting the use of the school building for various community meetings is not enough. Nor is teacher participation in local clubs and enterprises an adequate discharge of community responsibility. Although both of the foregoing are important, maximum educational benefits and optimum school-community relationships will not be achieved unless children themselves engage in community service projects. Many of them can be organized within the social studies program.

There are many types of service projects that children may undertake. The following are illustrative of projects that have been carried out successfully in many different school systems:

- Clean-up drives
- Clothing drives
- Paper drives
- Book and magazine drives
- Making toys for others
- Welfare campaigns
- Conservation projects
- Gardening
- Safety campaigns
- Gift boxes
- Junior Red Cross work
- Various relief drives
- Bicycle safety
- City beautification
- Making items for shut-ins

By engaging in service projects, children gain increased insight into community needs, cooperative planning, group processes, and the significance of service to others. Their work in the social studies should be vitalized and made more meaningful as a result of community service activities. Increased use of community facilities and

[8] Paul Hanna, *op. cit.*

services should be stimulated, and closer bonds between school and community should result.

Experience with community service activities in many different school systems has highlighted the importance of selecting projects with great care. There is no time or place in the elementary curriculum for projects that do not meet the following criteria: [9]

Does the project have educative value for children?
Is it lawful to use boys and girls for this enterprise?
Does the enterprise meet an immediate community need?
Are there other existing needs that are more important at the present time?
Is there any other agency or organization that could render this service more efficiently?
Is the project too expensive in terms of time, money, equipment, and personnel?
Is the project well planned and likely to succeed?
Is the necessary leadership available for adequately supervising the children's services?
Will this project cause undue hardship on children, teachers, administrators, or other school groups?
Does this project help the school fulfill its long-range educational program?

The same care should be exercised in planning service activities as in developing other educational enterprises. The contribution of the activity to education should be clear in the teacher's mind. The children should clearly understand the purposes of the project, and their role in it.

WORKING WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

In most communities there are local chapters of various organizations designed especially to promote the welfare of boys and girls. Their impact upon the lives of children in improving character and in personality development has been demonstrated time and time again. The programs offered by such organizations as the American Junior Red Cross, Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, the National Recreation Association, and the American Camping Association should be studied carefully and used to supplement social studies experiences.

An excellent example of ways in which activities of these organ-

[9] U. S. Office of Education, *The Schools and Community Organization*, Education and National Defense Series, Pamphlet No. 5. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1944.

izations are related to the social studies is the international correspondence program of the Junior Red Cross.[10] Other resources available from Junior Red Cross centers include first aid materials, articles in *Junior Red Cross News* on peoples and places throughout the world, participation in the gift box program and the international art and music program, conservation of natural resources, and safety education materials. By checking with officials of the different organizations, or consulting bulletins that they publish, many activities related to the social studies may be discovered and utilized.

EXPANDING CONCEPTS OF COMMUNITY

From the child's point of view, the community may be the place where "we live," "we buy stuff we need," or "we go to school and church." It may even be "our city with all the stores, schools, churches, shows, depots, streetcars, and other things." Or it may be "the place where a lot of people live." Concepts will vary greatly, depending upon the guidance given by the teacher and the maturity of the child.

As the child matures, his concept of community should develop to include increasingly broader and deeper understandings. At first the community may be viewed as his section of town; later the entire town or city may be seen as a unit of organized living; later the state, a region, or nation may be visualized as larger units in which people with common purposes and aspirations are working and sharing; finally a world community of people working to achieve equality and peace should be envisioned as the keystone to the community idea. How wonderful it will be when people everywhere come to a realization that their immediate community is part and parcel of the world community! Experiences in the social studies should make rich contributions towards such an understanding!

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Do a brief survey of the resources in the community in which you are now living; use the checklist on pp. 205-206. Fill in the spaces provided in the checklist by noting resources you can use in a unit of work of your choice.

2. In cooperation with fellow students, or teachers, undertake a survey of factors and conditions in your community, using the list of topics suggested on page 206. Which of your findings are most useful in

[10] *International School Correspondence Program,* American Red Cross Leaflet 1441. Washington, D.C.: The American Red Cross, July, 1955.

the social studies? Which are most useful in other areas of the curriculum? Which sources of information did you find to be most helpful?

3. Which daily experiences of children of the age you plan to teach, or are now teaching, do you believe to be most useful in the social studies? Which are directly related to a unit of work you plan to teach?

4. Make a brief plan for a short walking trip that might be taken by a group of children in your community. Make a plan for a major field trip that might be taken. Use the planning checklist on pp. 220-221.

5. If you are not now teaching, arrange to accompany a group of children on a field trip. Sit in on the teacher-pupil planning and note the role of the teacher and children's contributions. During the trip note the reactions of the children, the role of the teacher, the role of the guide and parents, and the contribution of any other persons. Sit in on the follow-up discussion and observe subsequent activities growing out of the trip. Summarize practical techniques derived from the experience.

6. Make a brief plan for the use of a resource person in a unit of your choice. Outline specific contributions that the resource person can make.

7. Is there a field study or service project that children might undertaken in your community? Does it meet the criteria suggested on page 228? How might it be made a part of a unit of work in the social studies?

8. Obtain and examine bulletins on children's activities available from the local Junior Red Cross chapter. Which activities might you use in connection with the social studies?

9. Discuss ways in which teachers in the elementary school can contribute to the maturing child's concept of community, beginning with the immediate neighborhood and extending outward.

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9

USING AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Audio-visual materials are used to develop concepts, improve attitudes, and extend appreciations and interests; they also provide concrete bases for group planning, critical thinking, and discussion by enabling the child to see and hear what is being studied in various units of work. Audio-visual materials stimulate learning, have a high degree of interest for children, and make for permanence of learning.[1] Children are interested in examining objects, seeing pictures and films, and hearing recordings related to such studies as Farm Life, Pioneer Life, and Latin America. The concepts and information learned through the use of such materials are remembered longer than when presented solely through verbal means; they are also learned faster and can be put to use immediately in related activities, thus saving time. The use of audio-visual materials enables the teacher to present concepts, processes, and information of faraway places and peoples in a concrete and meaningful manner. By reviewing or rehearing them as needs arise, children have opportunities to correct misconceptions, answer questions, and secure additional ideas. Audio-visual materials are also used to round out and extend firsthand experiences. Seeing a film on spinning and weaving greatly extends the child's concepts of processes that he may have seen in a demonstration, or experienced himself in classroom activities; processes can be slowed down or even stopped to allow careful study and analysis. Or seeing a film on The Dairy after a field trip to a local dairy helps to clarify concepts and to organize the child's thinking about the trip. Concepts and terms

[1] For a review of research see *Audio-Visual Materials of Instruction,* Forty-Eighth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1949, pp. 253-293.

learned in using audio-visual materials may be carried over and used in discussions, reading, and writing of reports. Individual differences may be met, giving all children opportunities to learn through seeing pictures and films, handling objects and models, and hearing records. Finally, appreciation of the contributions of others and improved attitudes toward other groups may be developed as children learn about common needs and activities of mankind through the use of authentic and realistic audio-visual materials.

VARIETY OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

The listing of materials in the checklist below is indicative of the wide range of audio-visual resources, equipment, and supplies available for use in the social studies. The checklist is helpful in surveying the resources available in a particular school system. It also can be used in planning a unit of work to answer such questions as: Which resources can be used in the initiation? Which can be used in connection with specific questions and problems as the unit develops? Which can be used to summarize key ideas? Which can be used to review and emphasize key learnings? The checklist also can be used to evaluate one's own acquaintance with resources and equipment. Each teacher should be competent in utilizing different resources and should understand their unique values or contributions to the improvement of social learning. Specific attention is given to the use of the various types in the social studies in the following sections and chapters.

Checklist of Audio-Visual Resources

A. *Realia and Representations of Realia*

__Models	__Collections	__Museums
__Objects	__Products	__Dioramas
__Specimens	__Miniatures	__Panoramas
__Samples	__Ornaments	__Mock-ups
__Textiles	__Utensils	__Marionettes
__Costumes	__Weapons	__Puppets
__Instruments	__Facsimiles	__Dolls

__Others: _____

B. *Pictures and Sound Combined*

__Motion pictures	__Television	__Sound film strips

C. *Pictures and Pictorial Representations*

__Photographs	__Postcards	__Montages
__Pictures	__Prints	__Murals
__Drawings	__Etchings	__Film strips
__Sketches	__Albums	__Silent films
__Slides	__Scrapbooks	__Opaque projections

__Others: _____

D. *Auditory Resources*

__Radio	__Records	__Recordings

E. *Symbolic and Graphic Representations*

__Maps	__Cartoons	__Chalkboard
__Globes	__Posters	__Bulletin board
__Atlases	__Diagrams	__Flannel board
__Charts	__Graphs	__Timelines

__Others: _____

F. *Projectors and Viewers*

__Slide	__Motion picture	
__Opaque	__Stereoscope	
__Overhead	__Slide viewer	

G. *Players and Recorders*

__Record	
__Tape	
__Wire	

H. *Supplies and Materials for Production*

__Lettering devices	__Slide making	__Bookbinding
__Map outlines	__Chart making	__Map making
__Pantograph	__Picture mounting	__Model making

__Others: _____

REALIA

The term *realia* means *real things*. In this section it is used to refer to objects, models, specimens, and items in museums, exhibits, dioramas, and panoramas. Specific materials used in the social studies that may be classified as realia include: jewelry, ornaments, money, clothing, dolls authentically dressed, utensils, tools, dishes, tableware, products, manuscripts, documents, facsimiles, seals, letters, timepieces, communications devices, models of transportation equipment, musical instruments, art objects, sample foods, models of shelter, and weapons. In planning a unit of work, the teacher should attempt to secure as many realia as possible for use in building authentic impressions and

accurate concepts. This is not to suggest that a wide variety of devices or gadgets will be injected into a unit of study and used without careful planning. Realia, like all other materials, are used as part of the sequence of experiences in the unit of work at times when they can make the greatest contribution to learning.

It is impossible for children to go back in time and space to early times and to the many other eras and places considered in the social studies. It is possible, however, for them to have experiences with real things, or replicas of them, related to the unit of work. By using realia children may identify themselves more closely with objects and persons they are studying in such units as Home and Family, The Farm, Pioneers, Indians, Mexico, China, or Aviation. For example, in a study of Colonial Living, one group made extensive use of candle molds, muskets, powder horns, cooking utensils, tableware, a spinning wheel, and clothing of the period. In a study of Mexico, another group ate tortillas, frijoles, pan, chile, and enchiladas. In addition they had access to sombreros, serapes, rebosos, huaraches, and models of furniture and utensils. In a study of Communication, one class used a simple radio crystal set, a telegraph key, drums, hollow logs, whistle, bone horn, bells, telephone, and flag signals. It should be emphasized, however, that each of the foregoing was used in accordance with carefully made plans and related to important concepts and understandings.[2]

In using realia and models, increased social learning is possible if they are used in line with the following principles:

1. Use realia to initiate a unit, to enrich concepts encountered in the unit, and to culminate experiences.
2. Allow children to handle them, manipulate them, and see how they work. If they are fragile, have their use demonstrated to the class.
3. Be alert to questions and comments made by children as they handle them; they may be vital clues to interest, needs, and misconceptions.
4. Encourage their use in dramatic play and in construction.
5. Relate their use to pictures, reading materials, motion pictures, and experiences children have had on trips.
6. Have children see them in a complete and realistic setting—museum, restoration, displays, exhibits, dioramas, and panoramas.
7. Use them in connection with real problems that arise in the unit, not as gadgets.

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[2] For a good discussion see Irene F. Cypher, "Realia Make the Social Studies Real." *Audio-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies* (W. H. Hartley, Ed.). Eighteenth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1947, pp. 61-65.

Realia and models may be secured or seen in many different places. They are provided by audio-visual departments in many city and county school systems; they should be available in all of them. In some elementary schools, they are available in the school museum or the materials center. At times it is possible to secure them from individuals in the community; this is especially true of Indian and Colonial realia and materials gathered on trips to various countries. Children themselves may collect and construct many different items.[3] Other sources that are frequently used by teachers include public museums, commercial and industrial organizations, and theatrical supply houses. Once individuals in a community have learned that the materials will be put to effective educational use, they are eager and willing to share them, and in many instances they will give them to the school.

EXHIBITS

Exhibits are used to display a variety of materials in the social studies.[4] In a study of Transportation by one group, models and pictures of boats, aircraft, trains, wagons, carts, and other items were arranged in a chronological sequence. The background used for the exhibit was a timeline with explanatory material and related pictures. In a study of China, another group made an exhibit of the processing of silk, starting with the cocoon and ending with a piece of cloth. In a study of Industrial America, another class made several exhibits showing the processing of iron, petroleum, and soybeans from raw material to finished product. Other examples of exhibits used successfully in the social studies are: art in the community, growth of democratic institutions, basic documents in American democracy, changes in methods of transportation, story of printing, history of records, the development of communications, intergroup contributions, weapons and utensils from different cultural groups, flags of Latin America, and products of different countries and industries.

Exhibits should be viewed as an integral part of the experiences in a given unit of work. They should be planned and used when they will contribute most of the solution of questions and problems that have arisen in the class. In some instances they may be used at the

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[3] F. G. Bonser and Lois C. Mossman, *Industrial Arts in Elementary Schools.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923.

[4] For a good discussion see Edgar Dale, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching.* New York: The Dryden Press, 1954 (Rev. ed.), pp. 106-122.

Richmond, California

Dioramas made by individual children have been stacked one upon another to make this exhibit depicting life in Mexico. Why must children do intensive planning and research to make dioramas such as these?

beginning of the unit to open up problems and questions; in others they may be used during the unit to stimulate new questions and problems, or at the end of the unit when various ideas, materials, and objects are summarized or shared with other groups. To be most effective, such guidelines as the following should be used in planning exhibits:

1. Provide for cooperative teacher-pupil planning in the use and development of the exhibit.
2. Work out balanced-space arrangement, using tables, bulletin boards, and racks.
3. Do not clutter the exhibit with too much detail or weird color schemes.
4. Use a relatively simple background with simple labels and clear lettering to designate items.
5. Place the most important objects in strategic positions so that the eyes will naturally move to them.
6. Give attention to eye level in arranging materials; secure effective lighting.
7. Arrange for demonstrations, discussions, and reports if they will make the exhibit more effective.
8. Use movement and sound if they add to the value of the exhibit.
9. Make plans to share the exhibit with other classes, parents, the library, or museum.

Materials for exhibits can be secured from several sources. Parents, pupils, and individuals in the community are happy to share hobbies and collections when they are to be put to educational use. Materials may also be secured from governmental agencies, chambers of commerce, and industrial plants. Many audio-visual departments are developing exhibits to accompany units in the social studies. All these sources should be checked by the teacher when making plans for a given unit in the social studies.

DIORAMAS AND PANORAMAS

A diorama consists of a scene in perspective in which three-dimensional models depict the activity.[5] They may be used to present a variety of ideas, such as life in Boonesboro, living in a log cabin in pioneer times, neighborhood helpers at work, activities at the airport. Careful attention must be given to the setting in which the diorama is placed. Panoramas are broad scenes in which models are used to depict a given topic; they are not necessarily in perspective. Panoramas are used to show industries, activities of the United Nations, branches of the federal government, recreational opportunities, activities in a lumber camp, and the like. Many teachers have found that children will do a large amount of research to make their dioramas and panoramas realistic.

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[5] For a good discussion see J. W. Jenkins, "Let's Make a Diorama," *See and Hear*, 4:36-37, November, 1948.

DEMONSTRATIONS

Effective demonstrations by children, resource visitors, or the teacher make rich contributions to social learning if viewed as ongoing aspects of a unit and not as little side shows injected into the program.[6] By providing for carefully planned demonstrations, it is possible to clarify concepts, increase interest and appreciation, relate principles and materials to critical problems, show difficult processes, and illustrate procedures for the use of materials. If demonstrations are followed immediately by activity on the part of the children, rich learning takes places.

There are many possibilities for the use of demonstrations in the social studies. In a unit on the Home and Family, appropriate demonstrations include ways of caring for flowers, making things for the playhouse, and arranging the playhouse for different uses. In a study of the Pioneers, demonstrations may be given of carding wool, candle making, operating the spinning wheel, making soap, and processing flax. Other illustrative demonstrations which may be given at many different levels include proper use of tools, materials, utensils, musical instruments, art media, maps, globes, and models. Objects and realia brought from home can be demonstrated by children as they relate to problems and topics in the unit of work.

The procedures involved in effective demonstrations may be illustrated by considering a demonstration of candle making carried out during a study of Colonial Life. The teacher's purposes were to develop increased appreciation of the processes used by the colonists to make candles, to show early methods of providing illumination in the home, and to develop readiness for candle making by the children. Need for the demonstration had arisen in a discussion of how the colonies provided light and heat in their homes. The class decided to invite a local resident (a resource visitor) who had a collection of colonial candles and realistic candle-making equipment. The resource visitor and the teacher planned the sequence of steps in the process, giving attention to timing, space arrangements, and materials that the children should use following the demonstration. During the demonstration children were seated so that all could see and hear; the teacher guided the asking and answering of questions. After the demonstration, the steps in candle making were summarized on a chart. This was

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[6] For a good discussion of demonstrations see Dale, *op. cit.*

followed by a candle-dipping activity in which several candles were made by the class with assistance given by the resource visitor and the teacher.

The foregoing example illustrates the importance of careful planning for demonstrations. The effectiveness of demonstrations depends upon the skill with which the teacher relates them to problems that arise in the unit of work. The following guidelines are helpful in achieving maximum value from demonstrations:

1. Clarify the purposes to be achieved by the demonstration.
2. Decide on the person to do it—children, the teacher, a visitor.
3. Plan carefully so that the demonstration is authentic and each step is clearly understood.
4. Practice the demonstration before it is given.
5. Present only those ideas that can be grasped by the group—avoid too many ideas and too difficult ones.
6. Be sure that necessary materials are available.
7. Check to determine if each child can see and hear.
8. Do the demonstration according to the plan.
9. Be alert to indications of misunderstanding, such as lack of interest, questioning, and grimaces.
10. Time the demonstration so that interest is maintained.
11. Use a chart or outline to summarize the steps if they are to be carried out by the class.
12. Encourage questions and comments to clarify understanding.
13. Repeat various parts as necessary to clarify understanding.
14. Have immediate follow-up activities.

MOTION PICTURES

Motion pictures are used extensively in the social studies because of their effectiveness in portraying movement and action. Processes, people, the world of nature, various types of activities and significant events can be seen in action in a realistic setting. Contemporary affairs, past events, and faraway places can be brought into the classroom. Processes that cannot be visualized in any other way can be seen in action on the screen. A broad sweep of events may be seen with various relationships highlighted, as in films showing the development of inventions, the growth of institutions, or contributions of great men and women. Time and speed can be controlled by slow-motion and time-lapse photography to show more clearly activities that need to be seen at varying rates of speed. In addition, motion pictures are

interesting to watch, hold attention, and exert a great impact on the modification of attitudes.[7]

Effective use of motion pictures requires careful previewing and selection on the basis of needs and problems that arise in the unit of work. Films should be selected which are authentic, interesting, up to date, on the child's level of understanding, and mechanically satisfactory with reference to photography and sound. The following guidelines are helpful in selecting films and planning for their use in units of work:

1. *Select the motion picture that fits the needs and problems currently being considered in the unit of work.* Children are ready for the motion picture that has content related to expressed needs and problems. If it contributes ideas to the solution of problems pertinent to the group, it thus becomes another means of securing data and enriches the problem-solving process. If it is shown as an unrelated entertainment film, little learning takes place. Real-to-the-child purposes for seeing a film are prerequisite to effective utilization.

2. *Note concepts, aspects of social functions, and other social learnings appropriate to the group.* Increased understanding of the basic social functions is a major outcome of instruction in the social studies. All films touch upon one or more fundamental aspects of human living. The teacher should be alert to the possibilities inherent in each one, and guide children to discover them. It is impossible to remember hundreds of facts, but it is possible to organize thinking around the major areas of human activity. Films should make a contribution to this goal.

3. *Note aspects of human behavior, such as cooperation, acceptance of responsibility, helpfulness, and concern for others.* Human behavior in many different situations is brought to children in films; examples may well be considered by the class. All too frequently significant aspects of behavior are pushed aside and attention is centered upon the "number of bananas loaded on the boat," "the products raised," or a similar set of facts. While these may be important, they do not rule out attention to effective human relations and group processes. This is undoubtedly one of the most neglected aspects of film utilization at the present time.

4. *Note the use of communication skills, number concepts, ex-*

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[7] For a good review of research see Edgar Dale, J. D. Finn, and C. F. Hoban, Jr., "Research on Audio-Visual Materials," *Audio-Visual Materials of Instruction*, Forty-eighth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1949, pp. 261-277.

pression in art and music, and processes in thinking. Processes of communication and ways of working together are frequently illustrated in motion pictures. If children are guided to discover such skills and processes, become accustomed to looking for them, and see many practical examples and illustrations of them, their chances of improving their own effectiveness are increased. Because these skills and processes are vital in democratic living, films should make a contribution to their improvement.

5. *Detect size, space, and time distortions, and any parts which give wrong impressions.* Time, space, and cultural concepts are telescoped in many motion pictures. Highlights given to selected activities of a given cultural group may lead to stereotyped thinking. Showing the development of a nation in a thirty-minute film may lead to inaccuracies in historical perspective. Moving from border to border in a few minutes may give inadequate conceptions of size. Through discussion, reading, and the use of maps and other related materials, realistic conceptions should be developed and erroneous impressions corrected.

6. *Note opportunities to extend the development of basic social understandings, such as interdependence, use of resources to meet basic needs, adaptation to the environment, and the development of institutions to promote human welfare.* Although the theme approach to curriculum making is a thing of the past, it is important that children be guided to extend, enrich, and develop increasingly higher levels of understanding regarding man's interaction with his environment. These understandings grow out of many experiences and may be seen in innumerable situations in motion pictures.

7. *Note difficult ideas and concepts which require further development.* Difficult concepts and terms are used in many films, for example, steppe, latitude, prevailing westerlies, and conservation. It is difficult for film-makers to develop completely all of the concepts presented in one or two reels of film. The complexity of human living and social learning makes it imperative that teachers use related procedures, such as discussion, pictures, excursions, and research activities to clarify concepts encountered in motion pictures and other aids to learning.

8. *During follow-up activities give emphasis to the key learnings of greatest significance to the class.* In some instances these may be related to social functions; in others, to human relations and group processes; in still others, to significant facts and concepts, or a combination of learnings. A reshowing of the film may be necessary to

clarify issues or problems that arise during discussion. Be sure that the use of the film leads to other significant activities in a sequence that is meaningful to children.

9. *Encourage the learning of a few significant ideas; emphasis upon a large number may lead to confusion and lack of interest.* It is better to make solid progress with reference to a few concepts, principles, or attitudes than to do a superficial skimming of a large number. The best guide in this instance is to observe the behavior of the class and to develop only the learnings needed to solve significant problems in the unit of work.

10. *Enjoy motion pictures with the group to the extent that enjoyment is consistent with a high level of learning.* The writer has observed several teachers lose group interest during follow-up discussions of a film because of an overly zealous attempt to analyze the facts involved, and a failure to enjoy the film's interesting parts. This may occur when formally imposed and poorly understood written assignments or artificial check-up tests follow each and every film. This pitfall can be avoided by relating follow-up activities to the purposes established for the use of the film, and by guiding the group to enjoy and share its interesting features.

Nearly all of the points above also apply to television programs. This is so because many programs are in reality films which are being shown on a definite schedule. However, some programs are "live" and have added realism and interest because we are able to witness an event as it occurs. Yet there are difficulties in scheduling television programs and in finding those appropriate for a particular class. In this respect, and in others, television and radio programs are similar. Attention is given to both types of resources in the next section. However, the reader is urged to keep in mind points made about motion pictures as plans are made to utilize television programs.

RADIO AND TELEVISION

Radio and television programs are especially valuable because real events can be shared as they occur and events of the past can be recreated. Realism is enhanced as on-the-scene reporters chronicle events in a dramatic and personal manner. Outstanding musicians, scientists, statesmen, and community leaders can be "brought into the classroom or home" to enrich and extend learning in an authentic and interesting way. Dramatized historical programs can be used to help

children identify themselves with great people and events of the past. Special picture programs such as celebrations, holidays, campaigns, and festivals can be used to help children become increasingly at home in the world about them.

FINDING GOOD PROGRAMS. A major factor in successful utilization of radio and television is the identification of best programs for group use in school and individual utilization at home. Systematic efforts must be given to (1) securing information about programs, and (2) actually viewing or listening to programs to determine their value for children. Information about programs can be found in newspapers, weekly and monthly schedules issued by local stations and networks, *Journal of the AER-T* (Association for Education by Radio-Television) which reviews educational programs, bulletins of school and university stations, and program lists from the Radio-Television Division of the U. S. Office of Education (Washington 25, D.C.). Advice from fellow teachers and from audio-visual directors also should be secured. After good programs are identified, the teacher should become acquainted with them and select for utilization those which are most appropriate for his class.

The following short checklist is a helpful guide to use in selecting programs for a particular group.

PROGRAM CHECKLIST

___Is it related to experiences in school?
___Are concepts on the children's level?
___Is the main theme well developed?
___Is it interesting to children?
___Are action and dramatization good?
___Is the length of program appropriate?
___Are music and sound effects good?

One critical mistake that is made in some schools and homes at the present time is the failure to check radio schedules because of great interest in television programs. Yet some radio programs on local, state, national and international events are excellent for use in the social studies; others which present information on holidays, commemorations, and great men and women also can be used to advantage. The alert teacher does not overlook any program, whether it is radio or television, which can be used to make a contribution to the learning experiences in class.

Alameda County

Simulated TV programs can be used to highlight topics being studied as well as to stress programs that children should monitor and share in class.

Some of the best programs are presented during out-of-school hours and on week ends. Many of these constitute an educational resource that should be tapped. Children should be encouraged to select those programs at home which can be shared and discussed in class. Some teachers successfully employ a simple forum technique in which four or five children are asked to report on a particular program. Other members of the class are urged to be ready to ask questions and make additional points about it, thus being encouraged to monitor the same program. By rotating membership on the "forum group," the entire class can participate in a direct and challenging manner. As the reports and discussion are carried out in class, relationships to units of work and other classroom experiences can be emphasized.

LISTENING AND VIEWING SKILLS. There are several skills that children should develop and use in connection with radio and television programs. Although radio programs require listening without the aid of related visual imagery, both types of program require a clear purpose as a basis for utilization: to learn the story behind a person or event, to secure new ideas on a topic, or to note points related to a question. During the program, the child's mood should be one of concentration. Eyes should be focused on the set; extraneous movements, or noise of others should be overlooked; notes should be made as needed; and questions about the program should be kept in mind for the follow-up discussion. Critical listening and viewing as outlined in Chart 1 is the outcome which many middle and upper grade children can achieve.

CRITICAL LISTENERS AND VIEWERS

1. Be alert from start to finish.
2. Remember the most important points.
3. Be ready to ask questions at the end.
4. Be ready to agree and disagree.
5. Note ideas we can use in our unit.
6. Note ideas we need to learn more about.

Chart 1

The teacher's role in utilizing radio and television in the classroom is largely one of developing readiness, arranging conditions that make for effective reception, observing during the program, and planning follow-up experiences. By checking program notes and schedules the teacher can make plans for developing readiness for the program, noting purpose, mood, concepts to explain, and points of special importance. Related maps, pictures, and references can be secured for use before, during, or after the program. Before the program comes on, ventilation, lighting and seating should be checked. The receiving set should be tried out beforehand, and adequacy of reception in different parts of the room should be noted. During the program, the teacher should note viewing or listening habits of children, concepts to explain, and specific items to discuss in follow-up activities. Some teachers find it helpful to point to a map to note locations being presented, or to summarize key ideas on the chalkboard during the program. If this is done, care should be taken that it does

not detract from the program or disturb listening or viewing on the children's part. During follow-up activities questions should be clarified, points related to established purposes should be summarized, and ways in which listening or viewing can be improved should be noted.

There are certain difficulties connected with the use of radio and television programs in the classroom. Equipment is unavailable or inadequate in some schools. Very few programs come at the right time during a unit of work, and once the program is over, it is impossible to utilize it (or selected parts of it) a second or third time unless recording equipment is available. It is impossible to "talk back" to the program or to raise important questions. Some progress has been made in overcoming these difficulties by the establishment of broadcasting stations by the schools themselves, by recording radio programs and playing them back at the desired time, and through the provision of bulletins describing educational programs on commercial stations.

These difficulties should not be used as excuses for failure to use radio and television to enrich social learning. Instead, steps should be taken to secure recording equipment and announcements of programs. And, as was stated before, increased use should be made by children of programs heard at home that contribute to the work of the class. Teachers can make real headway in overcoming these difficulties by working on committees dealing with instructional materials. Announcements, handbooks, program guides, and bulletins on utilization may be prepared along with recommendations for equipment. Experience has shown that those materials that teachers need will be provided if carefully made plans are developed for their use.

RECORDS AND RECORDINGS

Phonograph records, recordings of radio programs, and recordings of children's experiences have several advantages over the radio: (1) they may be used at the appropriate time in a unit, (2) they may be replayed and appraised as time permits, (3) they are inexpensive to purchase and are easy to make, (4) they may be stopped during utilization for discussion and comments, and (5) many records are available for use in different units of work in the social studies.

Recordings and records are made and used for many different purposes in the social studies. They provide excellent background and sound effects for dramatization, pageants, creative work, choral reading, and individual readings. Recordings may be made of children's

work, speeches of famous people, school visitors, travelogues, and radio programs. Growth in planning, discussion, reporting, and group evaluation may be appraised if recordings are made at various times during the year. Stories, rhythms, comments for use with slides or film strips, and music for folk dances and accompaniment may be recorded and used as needed. Creative teachers will find many other uses if they are alert to the needs and problems that are met by using recordings in the social studies.

Recordings may be made on tape, wire, or disks. Tape recordings are generally the most satisfactory because they are relatively inexpensive, easy to make, easy to edit, reusable, and replayable without losing quality. Wire recordings have many of the same characteristics, but do lose quality after several playings. Disk recordings are easy to use and store, but are more difficult to make, cannot be edited, and lose quality after a few playings. In making recordings be sure that (1) background noise such as whispering, moving chairs, rattling paper is eliminated; (2) clear, natural, distinct speaking voices are used; (3) interruptions are avoided; (4) the microphone is held close enough (6 to 18 inches) and not jarred; and (5) room echoes are eliminated by placing furniture or screens against flat walls. *Practice before recording* is a sound rule to follow.

Records and recordings can be used at the beginning of a unit of work, during the unit as significant problems arise, or as part of the culmination. As with other instructional materials, the teacher should use sound guidelines to secure maximum learning.

1. Use auditory materials to achieve specific purposes related to problems and questions of concern to the group.
2. Be well acquainted with them and select only those appropriate to the group.[8] Check available manuals and listen to recordings before utilization.
3. Be sure that the children have real purposes in mind; listening for a purpose is as important as reading for a purpose.
4. Anticipate difficulties, such as colloquialisms or the use of idioms.
5. Check mechanical problems and techniques of machine operation to assure uninterrupted presentation.
6. Make plans for meaningful follow-up activities to assure application of key ideas.
7. Use auditory materials in conjunction with other materials, such as prints, film strips, photographs, and slides.

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[8] Check catalogues of record companies and prepared lists such as *Annotated List of Phonograph Records,* Children's Reading Service, Brooklyn 13, New York.

8. Be sure the children see sense in the utilization of auditory materials and in the contribution they make to the unit. Secure their cooperation in evaluating the use of such materials.

9. Appraise children's growth in listening skills as well as other outcomes resultant from their use.

STILL PICTURES

Still pictures are the most widely used of all audio-visual materials. The photographs and illustrations in textbooks, encyclopedias, and other reading materials add interest to reading and help to clarify difficult terms and understandings. Use of the opaque projector to show pictures on the screen enables the group to focus attention upon specific details that have been enlarged. Slides and film strips are used to present a series of related pictures in sequence. Post cards, cutouts from magazines and newspapers, and children's pictures are used in displays, bulletin board arrangements, and exhibits. Stereographs are viewed individually or projected for group viewing to give a realistic three-dimensional effect.

Through the planned use of carefully selected pictures it is pos-

Los Angeles

A realistic effect can be secured by arranging objects and pictures carefully on the bulletin board.

sible to achieve many purposes. Units of work can be introduced in such a way as to give emphasis to major topics and problems. Key questions can be raised and interest can be stimulated. Reports and scrapbooks made by children can be improved and made more meaningful. Erroneous ideas and misunderstandings can be corrected. Symbols on maps can be visualized. Realism can be portrayed and the emotions can be stirred. Critical thinking can be sharpened as children use pictures to prove points at issue, e.g., how tools such as the adz were used, how a serape should be adorned, or the steps in processing milk. Problem solving can be made more practical and meaningful as pictures are used with other resources to answer questions that arise in on-going units of work.

The child's growth in ability to get ideas from pictures proceeds from (1) enumeration (telling about, or counting objects—"I see a cow, a barn, a farmer . . .") to (2) description (describing colors, activities, or objects—"See the red barn. The cows are eating hay . . ."), and to (3) the making of inferences and interpretations (stating what may happen next, or noting relationships—"The farmer is going to milk the cows. The cows are milked in the barn . . ."). The more experience children have and the more meanings they have, the better they can "read pictures." If backgrounds are limited or children are immature, the teacher can expect simple enumeration of pictures. As their backgrounds are enriched, there will be an improvement in the interpretation of pictures.

Flat Pictures. Flat pictures, such as prints, photographs, pictures from magazines, are used in a variety of ways in the social studies. One of their most valuable uses is in the initiation of a unit in which they are used with a variety of other materials to stimulate needs, problems, questions, and interest. An especially effective use is in the clarification and development of concepts, such as *Conestoga wagon*, *Boonesboro* and *Cumberland Gap* in a study of The Pioneers, or *tender, turntable*, and *roundhouse* in a study of Railroad Transportation. Many children find pictures helpful in giving reports and in reviewing key ideas and concepts. Pictures that reveal men at work in industry, transportation, communication, conservation, and related activities may be used to increase insight into the basic social functions. Art prints may be used to recreate feelings, thoughts, hopes, and aspirations of people who lived in other times and places. Increasing attention is being given in many social studies programs to the use of photographs based on life in the child's own community. Community studies in which use is made of pictures of boats, harbors, community

Alameda County

How can you use photographs to highlight materials placed in the reading center?

How We Use Pictures

1. To explain new words.
2. To prove points.
3. To make reports interesting.
4. To show difficult ideas.
5. To show places on maps.
6. To arrange bulletin boards.

Chart 6

Helping with the Bulletin Board

1. Bring pictures that fit the topic.
2. Use postcards, photographs, & cutout pictures.
3. Select the very best ones.
4. Arrange them so that everybody *wants* to see them.
5. Use colored paper background.

Chart 7

6. Organize picture collections around major topics or problems in the unit of work and place them in a kit or file for ease of handling and utilization. Mount them and thus add to their attractiveness and durability. Place them in labeled folders or large envelopes and make an index for easy reference. Keep the collection up to date by adding new pictures and replacing old ones. Secure pictures from magazines, newspapers, old textbooks, travel agencies, business concerns, chambers of commerce, information offices of governments, libraries, and commercial publishers and distributors.

OPAQUE PROJECTIONS

Opaque projections used in the social studies include a variety of nontransparent materials—pictures, drawings, diagrams, pages in books and encyclopedias, maps, charts, coins and paper money, songs, illustrations from newspapers and magazines, post cards, textiles, and other items which are magnified for class discussion. Since the pictures are projected by means of reflected light, a dark room is essential. Opaque projections are valuable for several reasons. Up-to-date materials can be used in units of work; maps and graphs can be enlarged easily; picture interpretation can be improved; attention can be focused on significant details in illustrations; children's work can be shared; reports can be made more interesting; and the entire class can examine an item at once instead of having it passed around the room.[9] By

[9] A helpful leaflet, *Opaque Projection*, can be secured from Charles Beseler Company, 60 Badger Avenue, Newark 8, N. J.

San Diego

The stereoscope can be used to provide for individual viewing. Arrange for the viewing of materials related to topics in the on-going unit of work.

hinging several drawings together, or pasting them on a strip, children can make simulated motion pictures to illustrate stories and reports. In fact, children should have many opportunities to select pictures for showing in the opaque projector that are related to topics being studied.

If certain pictures, drawing, or other items are to be used several times for projection purposes, it is wise to mount them on chipboard. This can be done by using rubber cement. The chipboard should be cut to fit into the projector; it is helpful to leave a wide side margin so that classification information can be written on it to facilitate filing. Apply the rubber cement to the back of the picture with a flat brush and mount in the center of the chipboard. Lay waxed paper over the picture and press under books until it is dry. Wipe off excess cement after it has dried, enter classification information, and file for future use. Over a period of time excellent picture sets for specific units of work can be built up and used to add a great deal to the program.

STEREOGRAPHS

Stereographs have a realistic three-dimensional effect which photographs do not possess. They may be viewed through a stereoscope or a telebinocular. Many stereographs are available on units commonly used in the social studies. Because of the realism they portray, they are a most practical aid for individual use in the social studies.

Some stereographic slides can be projected by means of a double lens projector for viewing by the entire class. Although polaroid spectacles must be worn and the viewing angle is limited, these inconveniences are compensated for by the realism that is portrayed. Scenes of cities, mountain passes, and valleys possess a reality that is next to actually being there. As one child said, "That's *realer* than a painting."

FILM STRIPS AND SLIDES

Film strips and slides are among the most popular audio-visual materials used in the social studies. They are easy to project; they are accompanied by helpful manuals; they cover a variety of topics; they are available in both colored and black and white types; they are relatively inexpensive; and their use enables the teacher to show selected materials at the time they are needed, and to discuss them as long as the situation demands. Some film strips are accompanied by recordings and thus require little or no commentary by the teacher as they are being shown. Slides are easy to make, can be shown in any order, but cost more than film strips and must be handled carefully to avoid breakage. Where order of showing is not a fundamental problem or the sequence of pictures in the filmstrips is satisfactory, the film strip is probably more desirable because of lower cost and ease of use and storage.

Making Film Strips. Film strips, or 2″ x 2″ colored transparencies, can be produced to show community workers, water supply, historic places in the area, or other subjects not available from commercial producers. A 35 mm. camera is used. To make a film strip, a negative of the script and pictures is developed first; a positive for projection is made from the negative by running it through a film strip printer (in photograph processing shops). Colored transparencies are processed by the seller of the film, or by photograph processing shops, and are returned ready to use.

In preparing a film strip an outline should be made to show the

Richmond, California

Slide making can be undertaken in connection with many problems that arise in the social studies. Can you anticipate possibilities in a unit of your choice?

step-by-step plan, and each frame that is to be photographed. Plan titles, labels, leading questions, and script for each frame, or for placement on separate frames between pictures. Use very little if any printed matter on frames for primary grades. Prepare frame cards and photograph them in proper order with the 35mm. camera, have the negative developed, and a positive printed from the negative. Assistance on technical questions such as use of a copy lens, lighting, and the like can be secured from a photographic supply store.

If a film strip or colored transparencies are to be made of a field trip, anticipate the "shots" that will be most effective. Include children in each picture to add personal interest, perspective, and a concept of relative size to each picture. Urge children to always look at the objects being photographed, not at the camera. Have the schedule worked out in detail so that no time is lost in taking pictures.

MAKING LANTERN SLIDES. It is relatively easy for teachers and children to make lantern slides for use in the social studies.[10] Slides can be made of tests, songs, maps, charts, diagrams and similar items. Photographic slides may be made of anything that can be photographed. Transparent inks and water colors, slide-making crayons, India ink, pencils, pens, brushes, glass, and materials for silhouettes constitute essential working tools and materials for handmade slides. Many teachers have found slide making an excellent activity for children to use in organizing, summarizing, and presenting information.

OVERHEAD PROJECTIONS

Overhead projectors may be utilized to project material while facing the class. The teacher can write on transparent plastic, or point to diagrams, sketches, and pictures on slides, and guide discussion while the material is being projected. A most effective technique is the preparation of overlays (laying one drawing over another) to show relationships. For example, one drawing may show the topography of the United States; on this is placed a second one showing forests or some other item. By showing the sketch of topography and then laying the sketch of forests over it, pupils can grasp relationships quickly. By taping one drawing to another along one edge to achieve a hingelike effect, the second drawing can be folded over the first easily so that borders line up effectively. By choosing colors carefully it is possible to get dramatic and realistic effects. The technique of making overlays is similar to that of placing sketches made on plastic over a relief map to show relationships.

DRAWINGS

Simple drawings and sketches are used in a variety of ways in the social studies. Illustrative examples are: making a sketch to use in designing floor layouts, posters, murals, backgrounds for plays; using drawings in planning for construction of boats, looms, utensils, and model buildings; showing sketches or drawings in making reports, clarifying points in discussions, and in giving demonstrations; using simple drawings to carry out processes such as dipping candles; sketching a map to show travel routes, ports, airways, or physical barriers; and drawing the route that is to be taken on a field trip.

[10] For specific directions on slide making, see J. U. Michaelis and P. R. Grim, *The Student Teacher in the Elementary School*, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1953, pp. 322-324. A good slide-making kit can be secured from Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pa.

Albany, California

Pipe stem cleaners can be used to make simple stick figures. This is a good technique to develop readiness for drawing stick figures.

Sketches or drawings may be made on the blackboard or on paper, depending upon difficulty, the need for future reference, and the purpose for which they are to be used. Their unique value results from the fact that they are a fast, easy means of illustrating key ideas and relationships.

POSTERS

Posters dramatically portray a dominant idea, thought, feeling, or way of behaving. They are commonly used in the social studies in connection with responsibilities, conservation, contributions of workers, services of industries, governmental services, social courtesies, care and use of materials, and so forth. Effective posters are attractive, easy to comprehend, related to immediate needs, devoid of cluttering detail, and are properly displayed. They may be made by the teacher or by the children, or they may be secured from such sources as business firms, governmental agencies, travel bureaus, chambers of commerce, commercial councils, the UN, and legations of foreign countries.

Posters are frequently made of children's drawings, photographs,

unit in sound directions. Related materials, such as posters, drawings, charts, maps, or graphs, should be posted as they are needed to solve problems that arise in the unit. Children's work may be displayed for purposes of sharing and summarizing the various learning experiences that have been undertaken.

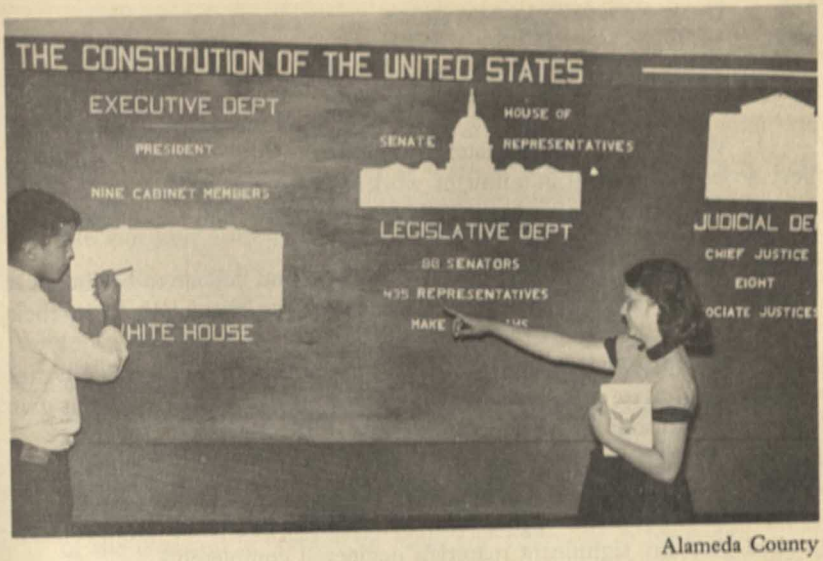
Bulletin boards commonly used in the classroom include such types as (1) wall or stationary, (2) swinging or movable, consisting of several sections on a pedestal, and (3) wire strung above the blackboard for hanging pictures, booklets, and similar materials. The most desirable type for use in the social studies program is the wall or stationary bulletin board. It should be placed at a low level so that it can easily be seen by the children. The wire type is too high for close scrutiny of materials. The movable or swinging type creates problems of utilization because it is difficult for many children to see it at the same time, and it is not possible to make a large display showing related elements. This type is helpful, however, in demonstrations or discussions in which a sequence of steps is to be shown.

In using bulletin boards, care must be given to selection of materials, arrangement, and timing of displays. The following guidelines are helpful in securing more effective utilization:

1. Material should be interesting and understandable.
2. Material should be related to the topics beings considered in the unit of work.
3. Material should be changed as purposes and problems change, and used to move the unit forward in profitable directions.
4. Balanced, artistic arrangements should be made with appropriate headings, titles, explanatory information, mountings, colors, and similar artistic elements.
5. Children should have opportunities to assist in arranging and rearranging materials that they have made or brought from home.
6. Children should have ample opportunity to explore and discuss the material.

THE CHALKBOARD

The chalkboard serves a multiplicity of needs in the social studies. It may be used for listing suggestions made during group planning, sketching illustrations, listing reading materials, noting assignments, copying suggestions for charts, writing group-dictated letters or stories, listing new terms and concepts, and a host of similar uses. Many teachers increase effectiveness of chalkboard utilization by adding



Alameda County

Upper-grade children can plan effective displays to emphasize key learnings in the unit of work.

simple stick figures to illustrate points, using colored chalk to emphasize key ideas, and using rulers, compasses, and stencils to secure neat, artistic effects. Care must be given to the selection of materials to place on the chalkboard, since slides, charts, and duplicated materials are more effective when large amounts of information or detailed data are to be presented.

Several points in chalkboard utilization should be kept in mind in order to avoid certain errors and to secure maximum effectiveness: (1) Write legibly and organize material neatly; (2) keep the chalkboard clean and uncluttered; (3) adjust room lighting to prevent glare and eye strain; (4) write high enough so that all can see; (5) keep the amount of writing small (distribute duplicated materials if a large amount of information is to be presented); (6) stand to one side so that each child can read what is placed on the chalkboard. Careful planning before writing on the chalkboard, practice in writing legibly, and systematic evaluation of one's use of the chalkboard are important considerations in achieving effective utilization. Many teachers find it helpful to check material on the chalkboard from the back of the room or from a child's seat, thus seeing it from the child's point of view.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Which audio-visual materials discussed in this chapter do you believe to be most useful in a unit of work you plan to teach?

2. Which audio-visual materials are used too much by teachers you have had or know about?

3. Which of the audio-visual materials do you believe to be the most difficult for teachers to use? How can the difficulties involved in their use be overcome?

4. Read the guidelines suggested for the utilization of motion pictures and list those most often violated in practice. What reasons can you give for their violation?

5. Secure a unit of work and check it in terms of the checklist on pp. 233-234 to determine which materials are suggested for utilization. Note the ones that are suggested most frequently and those that are overlooked. Are any significant materials neglected completely?

6. Secure some old magazines, pamphlets, and bulletins that contain pictures related to a unit you plan to teach. Cut out and mount the best pictures and organize a picture file. Select pictures that can be used to stimulate questions, build concepts, and enrich discussion.

7. Secure a local newspaper and study the radio and television schedules. Select two or three programs, monitor them, and appraise them in the light of the criteria suggested in this section. See if you can locate some that can be used in the social studies program.

8. Arrange to preview a film strip or motion picture. Analyze it in terms of the criteria presented in this section. What are its strengths and weaknesses? How can it be used in the social studies?

9. Reread the section on realia. Are there any that you can construct? Are there any that you can secure from a local audio-visual department or museum? Are there any that can be shared in the school by resource persons in the community? How can they be used in a unit you plan to teach?

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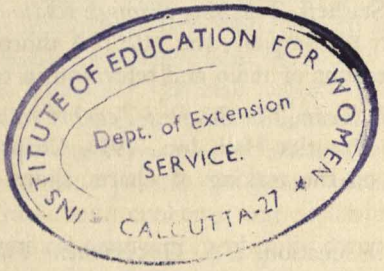
* Check also the guides to free and inexpensive materials at the end of Chapter 7.

Hartley, W. H., *Guide to Audio-Visual Materials for Elementary School Studies.* Brooklyn, N.Y.: Rambler Press, 1950. Probably the best single guide to audio-visual materials for use in the social studies.

See and Hear, 812 No. Dearborn St., Chicago 10, Ill. Monthly report on A-V materials; complete listing of materials by areas of curriculum.

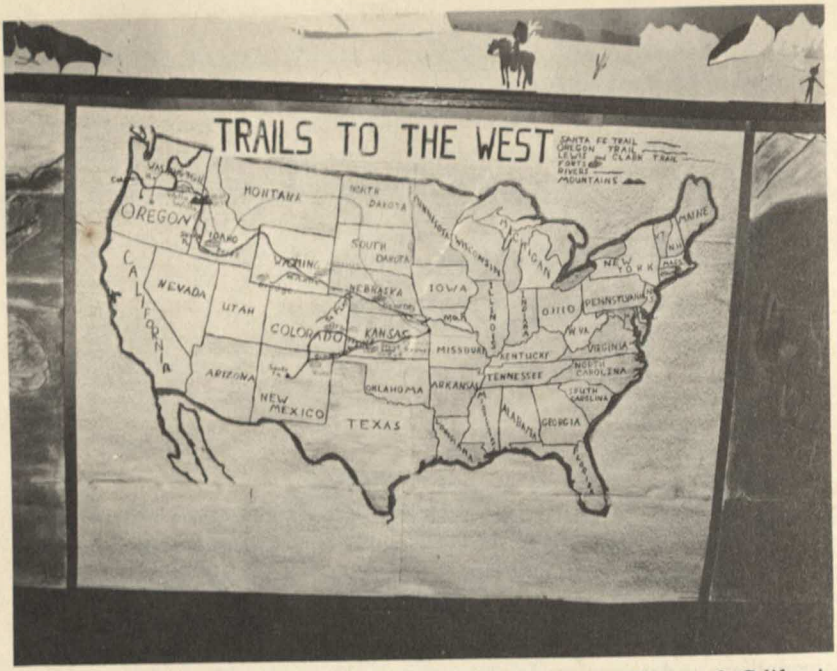


10

USING GLOBES AND MAPS EFFECTIVELY

Globes and maps are used to solve many problems and to answer many questions that arise in units of work. In the primary grades, floor layouts, pictorial maps, and simple maps of the school, neighborhood, and community are used to show the location of key places and to extend concepts of direction, distance, and space relationships. In the intermediate and upper grades, they are used in connection with questions about area, location, distance, elevation, density of population, products, travel routes, rainfall, vegetation, and relationships between surface features and living conditions. The following list is illustrative of the many specific uses of maps and globes in the social studies:

1. Determining distance between various places; finding shortest routes; comparing early travel routes and travel time with routes and travel time today.
2. Locating historical places, state and national parks, basic resources, seaports, water bodies, mountain ranges, places in current events, and centers of population.
3. Comparing selected regions or countries with reference to area, resources, density of population, temperature, surface features, waterways and airways, distance from the equator, altitude, crops, and products.
4. Identifying and determining relative location of countries, continents, oceans, rivers, cities, mountain ranges, and other significant features.
5. Mapping field trips taken by the class, routes of explorers, transportation facilities, products, current events, resources, and other features being studied in units of work.
6. Studying pictorial maps to find out about food, shelter, clothing, resources, products, plant and animal life, famous persons, and historical incidents.



Richmond, California

Use maps to summarize and portray key learnings in the unit of work.

7. Using maps from newspapers and magazines to report on places being studied and to locate places in current events.
8. Using maps in scrapbooks and in group reports to summarize data secured from books, films, and other sources of information.
9. Studying maps to discover relationships and to make inferences regarding climate and living conditions, industries and resources, terrain and travel routes, amount of rainfall and vegetation, location of cities in relation to harbors, and latitude and altitude as related to climate.
10. Making outline and relief maps to illustrate significant relationships and to summarize information related to questions raised in class.

Globes and maps should be used as an integral part of the problem-solving process. As problems and questions are defined and set up in the initiation of a unit of work, they can be used to give an overview of places being studied and to stimulate questions about ways of living, products, travel ways, or uses of resources. And as plans are made to solve problems, attention should be given to possible uses of globes, maps, and atlases to secure information. The use of outline maps, slated globes, and slated maps to summarize and organize information should be considered. Attention should also be given to

the use of the globe and maps in giving reports and sharing information gathered by individuals and committees. A special effort should be made to have children use the globe and maps along with pictures, films, and other resources, thus growing in their ability to use many sources of information to solve problems and to answer questions.

Get Information From Maps	
Locate places	Find major cities
Find distances	Note waterways
Find elevation	Find air routes
Note directions	Note highways
Find water bodies	Note railways
Note rainfall	Compare areas
Note products	Note products

Chart 1

Use a Map to Find Out About a River
Where is its source?
How long is it?
Is it navigable?
Are there dams on it?
What cities are near it?
What area does it drain?
How do people use it?

Chart 2

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION

In selecting maps and globes for use in elementary schools, special care must be taken to secure those which children can and will use. In far too many instances, children are asked to use maps designed for advanced students—maps cluttered with detail, loaded with fine print, containing concepts and ideas far beyond their maturity. The use of such maps has probably done more to create a poor attitude toward map-utilization than any other single factor. Simple, clear, easy-to-use maps and globes are essential for elementary school children. The following criteria are helpful in selecting globes:

1. Satisfactory types for multi-purpose use are the slated and physical-political globes.
2. They must be well-constructed in order to withstand the wear and tear of frequent use by children.
3. Large globes, from 12 to 24 inches in diameter, are desirable for most purposes in the elementary school.
4. They should be mounted to stimulate use; cradle and stand mountings are preferred by many elementary-school teachers.
5. Simplified material should be presented, such as major continents, bodies of water, countries, and cities.

College Elementary School,
Chico, California

The washable globe on which the child can write is used for a variety of purposes in the social studies.

6. Colors should be clear and of standard type: blue for water, green for lowlands, brown for highlands, and so forth.
7. Lettering should be clear and easy to read.

Points to keep in mind in selecting maps are:

1. Content should be simple, authentic, and related to the program.
2. The title should be meaningful.
3. Sources of information should be given.
4. Form of presentation of content should be appropriate to the maturity of the group to use the map.
5. Colors should be clear and standard: blue for water, green for lowlands, and so forth.

Education Workshop,
University of California, Berkeley

Maps and globes should be simple and uncluttered with detail. Use them together to teach relationships.

6. Symbols should be easy to see and clearly explained in the legend.
7. Lettering should be clear, large, uncluttered, and easy to read.
8. Projection should be satisfactory.
9. Size should be large enough for classroom use.
10. Scale should be clear and easy to follow.
11. Mounting should be durable and facilitate use.

THE GLOBE

The globe is the most accurate representation of the earth's surface available for use in the social studies. At least one should be provided in each classroom, and it should be used as a basic reference when problems of location, size, distance, direction, and space relationship arise. The globe should be used in conjunction with maps for comparing and clarifying the relationships between various places, since it shows true direction and distance, and accurately portrays relative size of land forms and bodies of water. Such a misconception as the belief that Greenland is larger than South America (it is actually one-ninth as large), or that the shortest distance by air from San

Francisco to Moscow is across the Pacific Ocean (it is shorter across the North Pole), can be avoided by frequent reference to the globe. The relative positions of continents and bodies of water should be checked in a similar manner. As a new region is studied, a first step should be to locate its position on the globe and only then to proceed to the use of a flat map. Repeated reference to the globe should be made throughout a unit to assure the development of accurate concepts.

In the upper grades the globe can be used to show great circle routes, the change of seasons, relative time in different places, how to locate places when latitude and longitude are known, and to extend such basic concepts as *parallels, meridians, latitude, longitude, Tropic of Cancer, Tropic of Capricorn, North Pole, South Pole, Arctic Circle, Antarctic Circle, the oceans, the continents, distance, and direction.* Care must be taken to introduce a few concepts at a time, and to pace the use of the globe with the maturity of the group. For example, the poles, oceans, continents, and equator can be learned by many fourth graders, whereas longitude generally is not considered until children are in Grades VII and VIII.

Some of the basic concepts that children should develop as they use the globe have been summarized by Irion as follows:

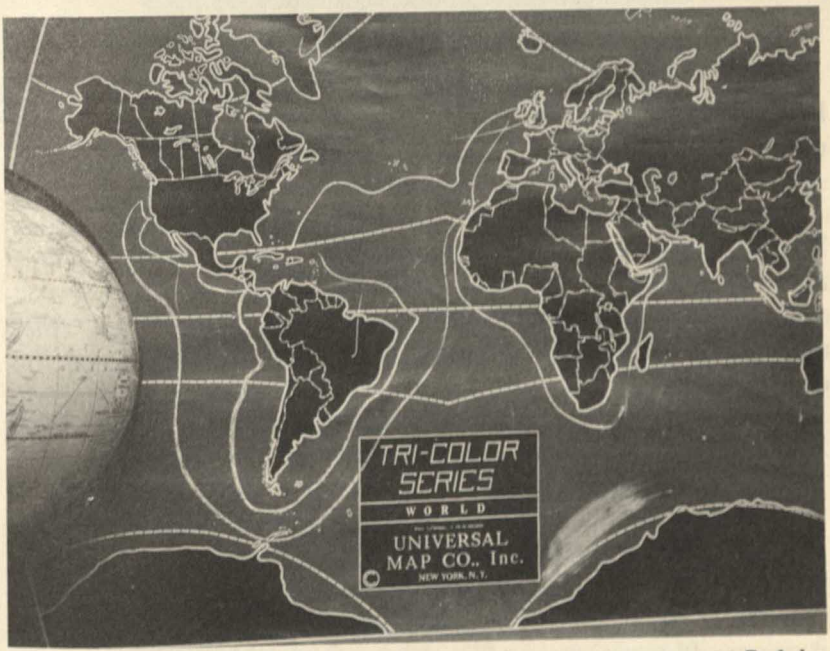
The earth is a huge sphere, or a globe;
Half of the earth is called a hemisphere;
There are four hemispheres—eastern and western, northern and southern;
Large bodies of land are called *continents;* small bodies, *islands;*
Water covers much more of the earth than land does;
The north pole is the point farthest north on the earth;
The south pole is the point farthest south;
Direction is determined by the poles. To go north means to go toward the north pole; when one is facing north, south is behind him, east is to his right, west is to his left.
Besides the four cardinal directions, there are four main in-between directions;
Halfway between the poles is an imaginary line called the equator. It divides the earth into two equal hemispheres—the northern and the southern;
The north pole is the center of the northern hemisphere; the south pole is the center of the southern hemisphere;
The imaginary line through the center of the earth from pole to pole is the earth's axis;
The earth rotates on its axis from west to east;

As any part of the earth turns toward the sun, the sun seems to rise; as it turns away the sun seems to set;
Half of the earth is toward the sun, half is in shadow. This causes day and night.[1]

FLAT MAPS

Although there is some distortion in flat maps, they are needed to show certain regions in large perspective. The globe is too small, for example, to show states and countries so that they can be studied in detail. The problem of distortion can be met satisfactorily by frequent comparisons with the globe, and by the selection of equal-area projections which are available in a variety of types at the present time.

CONTENT. Maps are usually classified according to content into such general types as political, physical, political-physical, economic



Berkeley

Slated maps and globes can be used by children to show travel routes, location of resources, and many other items being considered in the unit of work.

[1] Mary Clint Irion, "Learning to Read Maps," *Teachers Service Bulletin in Geography*, Vol. 3. No. 1. New York: The Macmillan Company, October, 1949.

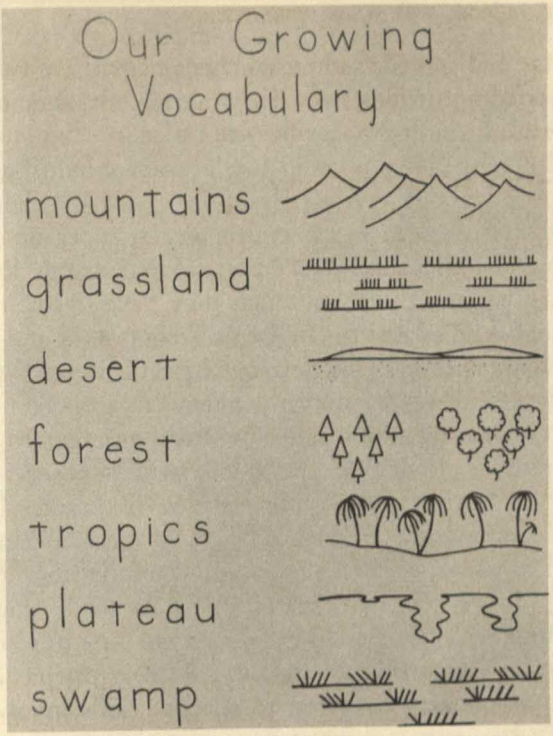
or commercial, and special feature, such as a map of westward expansion. The following list illustrates the wide variety of content that is shown on maps:

Political—boundaries, capitals, states, countries.
Physical features—mountains, rivers, bodies of water.
Combinations of political and physical features.
Economic—metals, grains, forests, rubber, other resources, occupations.
Population—density, relation to resources and physical features.
Climate—rainfall, temperature, weather, winds, ocean currents.
Travel routes—airways, waterways, roads, railroads.
Territorial expansion, explorations, pioneer trails, changing frontiers.
Historical development of states and nations.
Locale of works in literature, art, and music.
Scenic places to visit in state and nation.
Health status, incidence of disease, accidents.
Community—buildings, services, harbors, water supply.

FORM. Several different map forms are used in the social studies. By form is meant the method of presentation of information. The most common forms are: *pictorial* maps which use pictures to represent various type of information; *pictorial statistics* maps which use symbols to represent items such as products; *illuminated* maps in which lights are placed to emphasize certain elements, such as terrain; *outline* maps which can be completed by children; *wall* maps with varied content; *slated wall* maps on which material can be written; *relief* maps which emphasize physical features; *floor* maps on linoleum, oil cloth, or paper; *air-age* maps which give global views on a flat surface; and *decorative* maps such as those by Covarrubias.

MAP READING

Maps are a unique combination of symbols, colors, shapes, and terms. Symbols commonly used in making maps are the point, solid lines, broken lines, letters, colors, shading, drawings, and symbolic characters. Places on the map may be shown by dots, circles, triangles, squares, or crosses. Lines are used to show roads, creeks, rivers, borders, contours, and coast lines. Terms are used to designate various features such as mountains, cities, and bodies of water. Colors and shading are used to show land and water, and to distinguish one area from another by indicating such factors as elevation, density of popu-



Education Workshop,
University of California, Berkeley

Map reading requires systematic attention to concepts and symbols.

lation, rainfall, vegetation, temperature, or fertility of soil. Drawings and symbolic characters are sometimes used to represent such items as products, animal life, railroads, or mountain ranges.

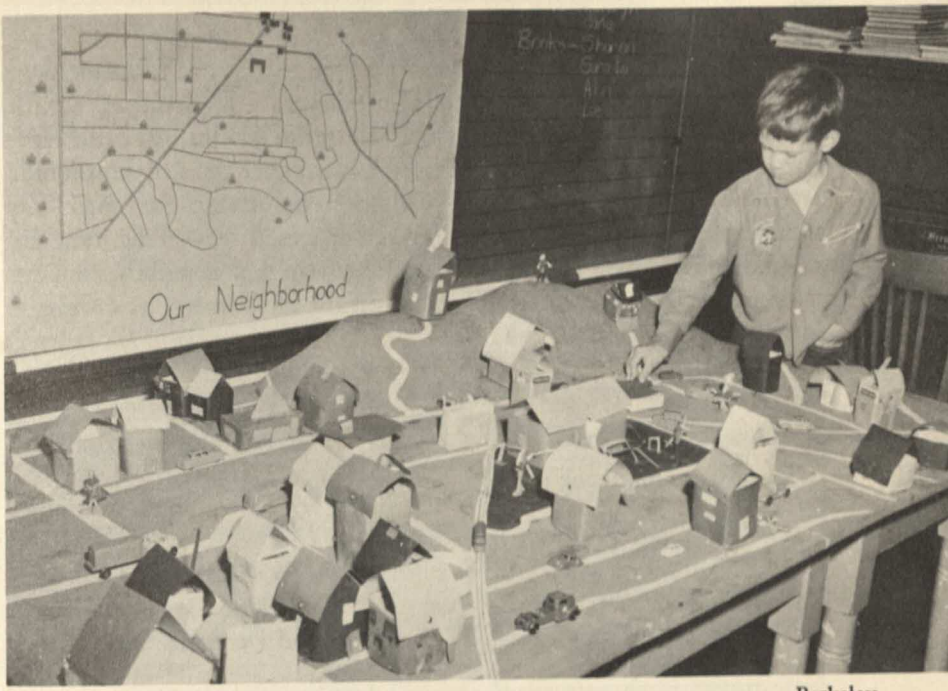
Because maps are symbolic representations, attention must be given to the gradual development of map language. First of all, simple maps with very little detail should be selected for use in the intermediate grades. In the upper grades more detailed maps may be used to meet the various problems that arise. The symbols, colors, and terms on the maps used by the group should be identified, learned, and used in reading maps and in making maps. In general, a new symbol should be taught as needed for functional use. The legend should be analyzed and the symbols and colors contained in it should be located on the map and interpreted. Important terms should be learned and located on the map. Children should have opportunities to use the terms as they write on slated globes and maps, and complete desk and wall outline maps. Directions north and south, and east and west should be

pointed out and reviewed as children change rooms, as new maps are introduced, and as questions arise. The scale of miles should be learned and used in measuring distances between places being studied in the unit. The different colors relating to elevation should be considered and related to places of varying elevation visited by children in the class. Sizes of cities, distances between places, types of climate and the like, should be associated with cities children already know, places they have visited, and places in which they have lived. In short, the use of maps must be related to children's backgrounds and experience, concepts and symbols must be developed gradually, and map-reading skills must be put to use in solving problems.

Maps and map symbols can only have meaning to children if many concrete experiences are provided, such as observing and discussing surface features, and seeing pictures, films and film strips of places and features being studied. Each child must develop sufficient background to visualize what is represented on the map and to translate symbols into realities that exist on the landscape. For example, the dot that represents a city should bring to mind a picture the child has seen or an actual trip taken to the city. After a period of meaning-building, attention may be given to specific skills involved in map reading.

The development of map-reading skills requires specific instruction in the symbols, colors, scale, and network of lines used to represent specific information. Such instruction should be related to specific needs for the use of maps so that children can make immediate applications of what they learn. Maps should be used in a setting of meaningful content developed in on-going units of work; isolated, encyclopedic dissection of maps in a formal manner leads to a negative attitude toward map utilization. Map-reading skills should be graded in difficulty, reviewed as needed at succeeding grade levels, and put to actual use in each unit of work. It should never be assumed that children can read maps simply because maps are in their books and on the walls of the classroom.

As with skills taught in other areas of the curriculum, grade placement of map-reading skills must be flexible. The ability of each child, his previous learning, and the richness of his present learning determine what should be taught next. The suggested placement of topics made in various places throughout the following sections should be viewed as a tentative guide subject to changes as needed in a particular class, with topics shifted upward or downward so that each child continues to progress satisfactorily.



Berkeley

Arrange layouts and maps of the community together so that children visualize the symbols on the map.

PREPARATION FOR MAP READING

Before maps can be used meaningfully by children there are certain skills and understandings that should be taught. Most important among these are directions, surface features, and concepts of the earth.

CARDINAL DIRECTIONS. The directions—north, south, east, and west—can be taught in terms of specific locations known to the child. For example, in what direction does his house face? The school? What direction is it from home to school? To the grocery store? To other familiar places? What buildings are north? South? East? West?

Another technique is to have a group of children stand with their backs to the sun at noon. Explain that they are facing north, that south is in back of them, that east is to their right, and that west is to their left. Have them locate the same directions in the classroom. Cards with the directions written on them can be shown later with the suggestion that individual children point in the direction shown. Some teachers find it helpful to place labels showing directions on the appropriate walls of the classroom.

Directions should be discussed after field trips and short walks, and after trips taken to nearby towns with parents. The directions to important cities from the child's home town also should be considered. Specific attention should be given to the fact that the *sun rises in the east and sets in the west.* Encourage children to look for the North Star at night; explain that this method has been used for a long time by sailors to determine direction. Many teachers find it helpful to summarize key learnings about directions on the chalkboard, or on charts as shown in Charts 3 and 4.

DIRECTIONS AT NOON

Stand with your back to the sun.
You are facing north.
East is to your right.
South is in back of you.
West is to your left.

Chart 3

THE SUN AND DIRECTIONS

The sun rises in the east.
The sun sets in the west.
At noon the sun is south.
Our shadows are toward the north at noon.

Chart 4

A compass also can be used by children to find directions. A simple box compass should be provided. Have them associate the direction the needle points with familiar places and with the direction of their shadows at noon. A simple compass can be made by suspending a bar magnet by a string and letting it hang until it comes to rest in a north-south line. Or, a magnetized needle (one stroked against a magnet) may be floated on a thin slice of cork in a glass of water. In the upper grades children should check the magnetic declination in the *World Almanac* (or call the local weather station) and make a correction to determine the true geographic north.

DIRECTIONS

Northeast—between north and east
Northwest—between north and west
Southeast—between south and east
Southwest—between south and west

Chart 5

CAN YOU FIND DIRECTIONS?

On the globe?
On a road map?
On a wall map?
With a compass?

Chart 6

SURFACE FEATURES. Children need specific experiences to develop an understanding of surface features shown on maps, and the terms used to express them. Both natural features (lakes, rivers, mountains, etc.) and man-made features (highways, canals, dams, etc.) should be given attention. The teacher's purpose should be to provide sufficient experience for each child to develop a clear concept of the landscape features represented by symbols used on maps. Then the child can bring meaning to map reading as we want him to bring meaning to other types of reading.

On short walks and on field trips different surface features should be noted and discussed. Children's ability to observe should be sharpened; they should be encouraged to ask questions about what they observe. Films, pictures, terrain models, and charts showing map terms should be discussed to clarify specific concepts such as *plateau*, *bay*, *gulf*, *harbor*. Commercial, or teacher-made charts, and pictures of surface features with appropriate labels attached to them are especially helpful. Children should report on trips they have taken to mountains, the beach, lakes, valleys, canyons, parks, dams, and other places where various surface features were seen; they should share and discuss post cards and photographs which show the features they are discussing. Sketches and drawings made by children as well as those in textbooks also should be used in discussion. As textbooks are used the teacher should be alert to new concepts that are introduced, being sure to clarify them through discussion, showing of pictures, or viewing of films and film strips. Another helpful technique, illustrated in Chart 7, is to have children in the intermediate grades locate pictures or sketches that illustrate specific features. The next step, of course, is to have them locate the same features on a map.

FIND A PICTURE THAT SHOWS THESE FEATURES

1. The rugged coastline of a fiord.
2. Mountainous land.
3. A broad plateau.
4. The hub of the highways.
5. A long, winding river.
6. A network of railways.
7. Area of dense population.
8. Desert as far as the eye can see.

Chart 7

CONCEPTS OF THE EARTH. Specific concepts about the earth can be taught to fourth graders by showing and discussing a simplified globe. Begin by discussing the fact that the globe is a good representation (not a picture) of the earth. The surface is land and water, and where we live is one small part of the earth. Explain that the earth is shaped like a ball and that the globe shows the main land and water features. Introduce the term *sphere* and have children tell about objects they know which are shaped like a sphere or ball. Explain that the earth is a sphere, too. Teach the meaning of the term *hemisphere* by cutting an orange or ball of clay in half; point out that hemisphere means half of a ball. Hold the globe so that they can see the hemisphere on which they live.

The North Pole should be located; explain that this is the farthest point north. Next locate the South Pole and point out that we are farther from the South Pole than we are from the North Pole. Explain the term *equator;* locate it and point out that it is midway between the poles. Show the northern and southern hemispheres and have the group tell in which hemisphere we live.

Directions on the globe should be clarified. North is toward the North Pole; south is toward the South Pole. Never use the terms *up* and *down* to indicate north and south. Explain that *up* is away from the earth, and that *down* is toward the center of the earth. The diagrams in geography texts are helpful in this connection. Show east and west to the group; have them identify known places to the east and west of their state.

DO YOU USE THESE TERMS CORRECTLY?

North—toward the North Pole.

South—toward the South Pole.

Up—away from the earth, higher.

Down—toward the *center of the earth,* lower.

Chart 8

DIRECTIONS ON THE GLOBE

North—along meridians, toward the North Pole.
South—along meridians, toward the South Pole.
East—along parallels, toward the rising sun.
West—along parallels, toward the setting sun.

Chart 9

The major land and water bodies should be discussed. Begin with North America, explaining that this is the continent on which we live.

Show the location of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, pointing out that our country is between them. Name the other continents, beginning with ones that have been mentioned in class. Mention one or two places on each continent that are familiar to children. Show the Indian Ocean, pointing out that it is south of the equator and between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

THE CONTINENTS

1. How many major continents are there?
2. On what continent is the United States?
3. In what direction is each continent from our continent?
4. Which continent is largest?
5. On which continent live the most people?
6. What oceans are around the continents?

Chart 10

USE THE GLOBE

1. To find distance.
2. To find directions.
3. To find location.
4. To note distortion in flat maps.
5. To compare places.
6. To find shortest travel routes.

Chart 11

Some teachers have found it helpful to have children take a ball of clay and mark the Equator, the North and South Poles, and the continents. Another technique that has been used successfully is to build up a simple globe by pasting strips of paper on a balloon. In some schools small globes for individual desk use are available.

MAP SYMBOLS

After readiness has been developed, specific attention should be given to the symbols on maps. Remember to help each child visualize the feature for which the symbol stands. Bear in mind that good map readers can recreate in their mind's eye what is shown on maps. Toward this end the following should be done:

1. Each map symbol should be visualized, and pictorial symbols should be introduced before nonpictorial symbols.
2. After a given symbol has been taught provide for some review without any label or caption so that children will learn the symbol and not rely on the label.
3. Be sure each child checks the key before using a map. Discuss any new symbols or new uses of color. Review any symbols about which there is a question. Do this for textbook maps as well as for

wall maps. Points to consider at different times are shown in Charts 12 through 16.

CHECK THE LEGEND

1. What is the scale of miles?
2. What do the colors mean?
3. What do the symbols mean?
4. Are other facts given?
5. Can you make a legend for one of your maps?

Chart 12

CHECK THE KEY TO THE MAP

1. What do the colors mean?
2. What do shadings mean?
3. Can you figure elevation?

Chart 13

CAN YOU FIND THESE ON OUR MAPS?

Plain	Hill	Island
Desert	Mountain	Isthmus
Tundra	Valley	Peninsula
Forest	Volcano	Continent

Chart 14

HOW ARE THESE SHOWN ON OUR MAPS?

Capitals	Lowlands
Cities	Plains
Seaports	Plateaus
Roads	Mountains
Boundaries	Products
Railways	Rainfall
Airways	Population
Rivers	Resources

Chart 15

SYMBOLS ON MAPS IN OUR BOOKS

1. Straight lines show roads on level land.
2. Curved lines show roads on hilly land.
3. Black squares show houses.
4. A cluster of squares shows a town.
5. Lines winding between hills show rivers.
6. The winding line by the ocean is the coastline.
7. Do you recognize other symbols?

Chart 16

4. Compare the symbols on a new map with those used on a familiar map; be alert to questions, or misconceptions, that children have about symbols.

5. Give specific attention to symbols for cities of different size, rivers, coastline, boundaries, canals, dams and the like.

6. Explain and illustrate the uses of color to show elevation, countries or states, and vegetation (see Chart 17). Point out that various shadings of black and white, lines, or dots may be used to show some of the same features (see Chart 18). Have the group summarize what the colors and shadings represent.

WHICH ARE SHOWN BY COLORS ON OUR MAPS?

1. Elevation of lands?
2. States and countries?
3. Distribution of resources?
4. Density of population?
5. Other information?

Chart 17

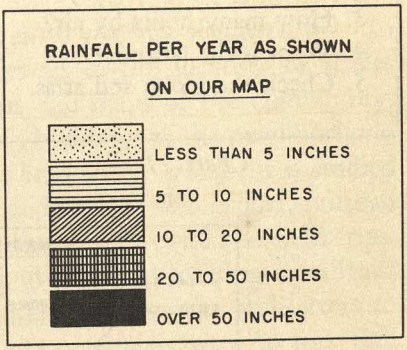


Chart 18

7. Discuss the key on a map showing elevation. Explain that elevation is measured from sea level and that the colors show the elevation. Discuss profiles of mountains as illustrated in textbooks, and have the class make profiles showing elevation. Relate these to color maps showing elevation, explaining that the colors enable us to determine elevation; summarize the colors and elevations represented by them as shown in Charts 19 and 20.

COLORS ON MAPS

How high is dark blue?
How high is light blue?
How high is dark green?
How high is light green?
How high is yellow?
How high is brown?

Chart 19

ELEVATION ON OUR MAPS

Red	10,000 and up
Dark brown	5,000-10,000
Light Brown	2,000- 5,000
Yellow	1,000- 2,000
Light Green	500- 1,000
Dark Green	0- 500
Blue	Below sea level

Chart 20

8. Be sure that children use their growing knowledge of map symbols in many different situations. Keep charts, blackboard notes, and pupil-made materials available for continuous reference in map use and map making.

WHERE IS IT?

1. What direction is it?
2. How many miles away?
3. How many hours by air?
4. What is the latitude?
5. Check the globe and atlas.

Chart 21

HOW BIG IS IT?

1. Compare it to our state.
2. Compare it to our country.
3. See it on the globe.
4. Check equal-area maps.
5. Use maps with same scale.

Chart 22

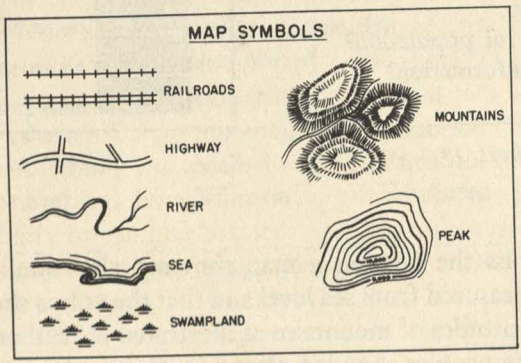


Chart 23

Teachers can add to the meaningfulness of maps by using them in conjunction with related field trips, pictures, film strips, motion pictures, the globe, reading, and discussion. For example, pictures of vegetation, landscapes, products, and types of shelter create in the child's mind impressions of the actual conditions that exist in the area being studied. Aerial photographs should be compared with related sections of the map. Symbols such as those used for canals and other cultural or man-made features become more meaningful after a child sees them in picture form. Similarly, the differences between the jungles along the Amazon and the forests in Oregon can be clearly distinguished through the use of pictures. Field trips are helpful where the landscape can be studied firsthand and then checked against available maps. Motion pictures and film strips that show canals, seaports,

animal and plant life, examples of clothing and shelter, and people at work, contribute other important meanings. Reading and discussion help in giving adequate backgrounds of understanding and in correcting misconceptions. As mentioned earlier, frequent comparison should be made between the map and globe to develop true conceptions of space relationships, size, direction, distance, and relative location.

LOCATING PLACES ON THE MAP

Special attention needs to be given to teaching children how to locate significant places. First experiences in the locating of places should be carried out on floor layouts and maps of the community. The school, children's homes, and main buildings in the neighborhood should be given first attention. As the broader environment is studied in Grade III, other places can be located such as the airport, railroad yards, nearby farms and dairies, and other places visited on field trips.

In Grade IV experiences may be provided in locating significant places on road maps. The grid on road maps—numbers and letters to designate east-west and north-south lines—is fairly easy to use. Call children's attention to the index of places and guide them to find the point on the map where the given numbered and lettered line meet. Use several places for practice that are familiar to children; for example, shown in Chart 24 are places in Wisconsin as listed in the index of a road map.

FIND THESE PLACES ON OUR ROAD MAPS

Green Bay	3-O
La Crosse	3-S
Madison	4-E
Milwaukee	4-G
Superior	2-B

Chart 24

The mileage chart on road maps also may be checked to determine the distance between places. Have the children use two narrow strips of paper to find the point of intersection which gives the mileage between two places. They can also find the mileage between starred cities on the map itself. Points of interest (national parks, monuments,

Richmond, California

A simple outline map can be used to show the location of important places in a state or region.

historical places) listed on road maps may be noted, too. Incidentally, the map inserts which show major cities can be projected easily by means of an opaque projector in order to make simple maps of the community. This is an excellent procedure if the desired community is shown, because it is possible to eliminate unnecessary detail and thereby secure a large map which can be used for many different purposes.

When commercial maps of the child's state or the United States are introduced they should be placed on the floor, or on a table, so that they can be oriented properly and directions can be noted realistically. Have the children find where they live, and then point out neighboring cities and states. This may be followed by locating places they have visited or read about. Discuss places being studied in the unit of work with attention to direction and distance (time as well as miles) from where they live. This will create a real need for learning how to use the scale of miles and how to compute distance. (The scale of miles is discussed in a later section.)

The problem of relative location—location of a place in relation to other places or surface features—should not be overlooked. Such

factors as accessibility, transportation facilities, and terrain need to be considered in this regard in addition to distance. Some places may be nearby "as the crow flies," but difficult to reach because of some barrier such as a mountain range, or lack of transportation facilities such as an airport or natural waterways.

In the primary grades the child begins to grasp concepts of relative location as different places in the community are studied, such as home and school in relation to stores, the library, parks, and playgrounds. Later, as attention is given to nearby towns, places in mountains and valleys, transportation facilities, and the location of cities near markets and resources, the child's concepts will be extended.

In the middle grades, specific attention should be given to the effect of mountain ranges, rivers, lakes, oceans, deserts, swamps, and jungles upon accessibility to given places. Ways in which man changes the environment and overcomes barriers—roads, canals, railways, airports—should be discussed too. After all, relative distance and location change as improvements are made in transportation facilities. Modern air routes which follow great circles can be considered to bring home the importance of the area around the North Pole as related to travel between our country and Europe. The location of many cities near natural waterways and the availability of markets and resources to industrial centers also should be discussed. In addition some children in the upper grades may discover that political and economic barriers, such as the Iron Curtain, are also factors to be considered.

A clear understanding of direction on maps and globes will help children grow in their ability to find and describe the location of places significant to them. Most fifth graders, and many fourth graders, can grasp the idea that lines of latitude are true east-west lines, and that meridians are true north-south lines. At first the terms *east-west lines* and *north-south lines* may be used; later the terms *latitude*, *parallels*, *meridians*, and *longitude* can be introduced. (*Degrees* as a concept of measure should be taught in junior high school.) Guide children in their use of lines of latitude to note places north or south of their city or state, and places nearer to, or farther from, the equator. Also show them that places on the same line of latitude, or parallel, are east or west of each other; parallels are true east-west lines.

By checking meridians, children can be guided to note places to the east or west of their city or state. For example, Los Angeles is to the east of San Francisco (even east of Reno), and South America is located to the east of most of the United States. They also should be shown that places on the same meridian are directly north or south

of each other; meridians are true north-south lines. Much review and practice should be given on these uses of parallels and meridians in the upper grades and in high school.

In all work of this type, emphasis should be given to the location of places being studied, or places being discussed in current events. The location of places should be tied in with significant questions regarding distance, products, climate, relationships between key factors, or some other problem that has arisen in class. To be avoided is the outmoded practice of having children engage in willy-nilly, meaningless location of places as busy-work.

The phrases *middle latitudes*, *high latitudes* and *low latitudes* should be substituted for *temperate*, *frigid* and *torrid zones*. The latter are climatic rather than locational terms, and are not accurate descriptions of climatic conditions in the particular zones which they are used to designate. However, since some writers do use the terms, children should become acquainted with them and understand the inaccuracies and limitations that exist in their usage. An example of how one group of children in Grade VII handled this problem is shown in Chart 25. The children should learn about the differences in seasons, and the varying lengths of night and day and their causes.

LOW, MIDDLE, AND HIGH LATITUDES

1. Low latitudes are between 23½ degrees north and south of the equator; this area is sometimes called the torrid zone.
2. Middle latitudes are between 23½ and 66½ degrees north, and in between the same degrees south; these areas are sometimes called temperate zones.
3. High latitudes are between 66½ degrees north and the North Pole, and the same degrees south and the South Pole; these areas are sometimes called frigid zones.

Chart 25

In the junior high school, or in upper grades, after degrees of latitude and longitude have been introduced, children can make more exact location of places. For example, they may locate their own city and other well-known places being studied such as New York, approximately 40° north latitude and 74° west longitude; Columbus, approximately 40° north latitude and 83° west longitude; and Denver, approximately 40° north latitude and 105° west longitude. The fact

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University of California, Berkeley

Use global projections to help the child see relationships between continents, travel routes, time and distance more clearly.

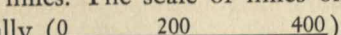
that places such as these are along approximately the same line of latitude and, therefore, are east or west of each other, should be reviewed. Latitude and longitude of major cities of the United States also may be checked in the *World Almanac*.

Great circle routes, longitude, and an acquaintance with a few of the commonly used map projections can be learned and used by many students in the upper grades. A great circle around the globe forms two hemispheres, and the shortest distance between any two points is along a great circle. The meridians and the equator are great circles; others can be shown by stretching a tape measure or string tightly along the surface of the globe. A simple global ruler can be made for measuring great circle distances as follows: measure the circumference of the globe, divide 25,000 by the circumference, and you then know the number of miles per inch. Have students use a global ruler to find great circle distances between places.

Longitude is not used so much as is latitude, but it can be taught in connection with the location of specific places and time zones. The Prime Meridian, the International Date Line, and how Greenwich came to be used as the main point of reference for longitude should be discussed. Specific location of familiar places may be undertaken first, followed by places being discussed in current events or in units of work. Consideration of time zones should begin with those in the

United States, followed by a consideration of time in Europe, beginning with time at the Prime Meridian and moving toward the United States and then on across Eurasia. A globe should be available for the discussion and students should discover that meridians are spaced 15° apart, showing one hour of time ($360° \div 24 = 15°$). They should also check time zones in the United States to find out whether or not they coincide with meridians on the globe.

SCALE OF MILES

Several points should be kept in mind in teaching the scale of miles. The scale of miles on maps may be expressed (a) graphically (

), (b) as a statement (one inch equals 500 miles), or (c) as a ratio (1: 1,000,000). The graphic scale can be used by many fourth graders to compute distances between places. Use of the inch-to-mile scale requires the child to measure accurately in inches and then to convert to miles. Both the graphic and inch-to-mile scale should be taught in the intermediate grades and reviewed in the upper grades. The fraction scale is the most difficult to understand because its use requires an understanding of fractions and ratio, and conversion to miles requires the use of simple algebra.[2] It is difficult for pupils to visualize 1: 1,000,000 or to convert such a fraction to an inch-to-mile scale. However, since the scale on most maps and globes is expressed graphically or in terms of inch to miles, the representative fraction scale need not cause undue difficulty in the elementary school. The teaching of the fraction scale and conversion to miles should be carried out in junior and senior high school as the necessary understandings and skills are taught in arithmetic and algebra. This of course should not prevent gifted children from learning to use this scale if situations arise in which functional use of it is warranted.

Several practical techniques can be used to help children understand distance as expressed by a scale. First, specific concepts of distance should be built up by considering familiar distances such as home to school, school to downtown, and to neighboring towns and cities. This should be followed by noting the same places on community maps and road maps. In this connection it should be pointed out that community maps used in the primary grades should be drawn to scale by the teacher, or use should be made of simple community maps

[2] For a discussion of conversion to inch-to-mile scale see Clyde F. Kohn, *et al.*, "Interpreting Maps and Globes," *Skills in Social Studies*, Twenty-Fourth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1953, pp. 154-155.

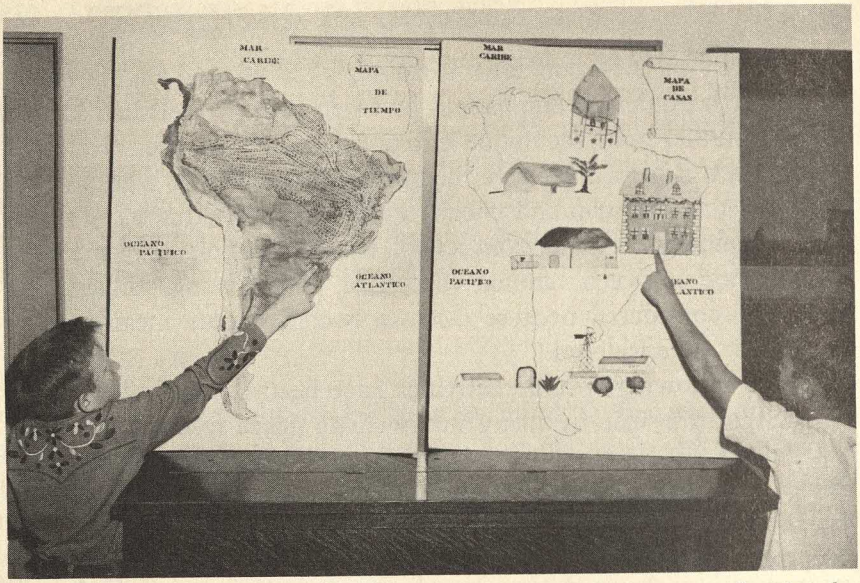
furnished by business concerns. Road maps can be used effectively by most fourth graders if emphasis is given to distance between known places. Another good technique is to consider the distance traveled on field trips. It is helpful to have the group take a map, or sketch of the route, on the field trip and check key points along the way. Travel time on field trips, to and from school, to and from places in the community, and between familiar places, or places being studied, also should be considered because distance becomes more meaningful if travel time is considered.

The following specific activities have been found to be helpful in teaching the scale by many intermediate grade teachers: drawing a sketch of the classroom to scale; making neighborhood or community maps; comparing two places shown on maps of differing scale; discussing distance and travel time between places children have visited; making maps of their state, or region, to scales of varying size; discussing the use of large scale maps to show small areas in detail; discussing the use of small scale maps to show a large area; comparing outline maps used by children with wall maps and noting the difference in scale; discussing the scale used on textbook maps; comparing distances between places being studied and familiar places (such as between New York and Chicago) and noting the scale; and comparing cities, states, and countries as to size. Of vital importance is the actual use of the scale on maps to answer questions that come up in daily work in the classroom.

DISCOVERING RELATIONSHIPS AND MAKING INFERENCES

The discovery of relationships is a major outcome of units of work in which geographic understandings are emphasized. Proper use of maps and the globe will contribute to this end. However, their use should be combined with reading, viewing of materials, and plenty of guided discussion so that any stated relationship has a basis in fact. Caution also must be exercised in discussing cause and effect relationships; have children double check first conclusions by making reference to other sources of information.

Among the important relationships that children can be guided to discover are the following: (1) elevation and growing season, (2) elevation and density of population, (3) highlands and grazing, (4) lowlands and farming, (5) soil and farming, (6) mountains and rainfall, (7) growing season in relation to altitude and latitude, (8)



Los Angeles

Have children compare physical maps and maps showing special features to discover relationships.

natural vegetation in relation to rainfall, soil, and growing season, (9) location of cities in relation to natural resources, and (10) industry and natural resources.

Each unit of work should be checked to determine if a contribution can be made to the development of one or more of the understandings listed above. Each understanding must grow out of experiences in the unit; they cannot be imparted by simply telling the child that they exist. Through reading, seeing pictures and films, discussing problems of people in different environments, and similar activities, children come to realize that certain relationships exist between the environment and ways of living. There will be a wide range of differences in completeness of understanding among the children in a particular group. Some will know only a few facts about a particular group while others will generalize findings and will be able to apply generalizations to peoples living in similar places. Through questioning and discussion the teacher will endeavor to get higher levels of generalization on the part of each child.

Systematic use should be made of globes and maps to help children discover relationships such as those listed above. One technique is to have children compare two maps showing different facts about the same area. For example, after comparing a map showing population of the United States with one showing topography, children can

discover that few people live in high mountainous areas; they can later find out if this relationship exists in other places. Or, by comparing a physical relief map and a map showing crops, children may discover that much farming is done in lowlands. Another technique is to have children study a map and make inferences about conditions there on the basis of information they already have. For example, if a desert is shown, have them infer living conditions they might expect to find. Or, if a rainfall map is being used can they make inferences regarding areas where crops may be grown and areas which are too arid to support crops? (In this connection, they also may discover something about soil in relation to rain and crops.) Or if a place of relatively low elevation is near the equator, what inferences can they make about climate? Or, as shown in Chart 26, can they make inferences about the effect of the ocean currents, winds, the Gulf Stream, and other factors on climate in various areas? Still other inferences can be made after a careful study of symbols which represent resources, industries, and similar items. Guiding questions can be used as shown in Charts 26 and 27.

How Do These Influence Climate?
Gulf Stream
California Current
Japan Current
Prevailing winds
Mountain ranges
Latitude and altitude

Chart 26

How Are These Resources Used?	
Coal	Titanium
Iron	Petroleum
Lead	Forests
Tin	Water
Silver	Soil
Gold	Animals
Uranium	Fish

Chart 27

In discussing man-land relationships and making inferences about ways of living, the erroneous idea should be avoided that "people are victims of the environment," or that they must always do what they are doing at the present time. Rather, the idea should be kept in mind that custom, tradition, education, and the desires of the people living in a particular area are involved in the choices they make. As different people come into a region, they may use the resources differently, e.g., some of the cities and activities developed by the Belgians in the Congo. In short, maps and other resources should be used in a study

of regions and countries from the standpoint of the people living there. Their ways of living, education, customs, and beliefs should not be overlooked as attention is given to climate, surface features, and other aspects of the physical environment.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Which of the specific uses of maps and globes outlined in this section can you utilize in a unit of work you are planning? Can you think of other uses?
2. Analyze a map or globe in terms of the suggested criteria. Note strengths and weaknesses.
3. Develop a list of questions that you can use with children to direct their attention to items they should note on the globe. Do the same for a map. Can you relate the questions and problems in a unit you plan to teach?
4. Study a recently published map and note the legend, use of colors, and information presented. Can you find related pictures that can be used to illustrate specific items?
5. Study the charts presented in this section and note ways in which you can adapt them for your own use. Are there others that you can plan and make?
6. Which of the map-reading skills do you believe to be the most difficult for children? List specific ways in which you can help children overcome the difficulties involved.
7. Check one or more of the references noted at the end of this chapter. Secure additional ideas on the use of maps and globes in the social studies.
8. Examine two or three social studies textbooks which contain maps and note how they are set up and discussed in the text. Note questions that can be answered by using them. Check the *Teacher's Manual* for suggestions on using them. Do you agree with the suggestions? How can you use the maps to enrich a unit of work you are planning?

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Journal of Geography. Each issue contains helpful articles.

Kohn, Clyde, *et al.*, "Interpreting Maps and Globes," *Skills In Social Studies*, Twenty-fourth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1953, pp. 154-155. Presents specific suggestions for teaching map-reading skills with emphasis on techniques to use at various grade levels.

Miller, George J., and Cora P. Sletten, "Source Materials," *Geographic Approaches to Social Education*, Nineteenth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948, pp. 191-202. Suggests good source materials to use in enriching classroom teaching.

National Society for the Study of Education, *The Teaching of Geography*, Thirty-Second Yearbook. Bloomington, Ind.: Public School Publishing Co., 1933. Although published in the early 30's this yearbook is a good source of information on the teaching of geography.

Preston, T. C., *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School.* New York· Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1950. Contains a section on maps and map-making activities with specific directions and recipes.

Wesley, E. B., and Mary Adam, *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1952 (Revised ed.). Contains sections on map reading, techniques of teaching, map utilization, and exercises for developing skills.

Whipple, Gertrude, *How to Introduce Maps and Globes*, No. 15, *How To Do It* Series, Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1953. Presents specific, concrete suggestions for providing instruction on map utilization; contains suggestions on grade placement.

Whittemore, Katheryne T., "Maps," *Geographic Approaches to Social Education*, Nineteenth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948, pp. 117-229. Presents basic information on maps and their place in the social studies.

SOURCES OF GLOBES AND MAPS

Australian News and Information Bureau, 636 Fifth Ave., New York 20, N.Y. Charts and maps.

British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N.Y. Wall maps.

Cram, George F., Co., 730 East Washington St., Indianapolis, Ind. Globes, wall and outline maps.

Denoyer-Geppert Co., 5235 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago 40, Ill. Globes, maps, charts, atlases.

Hammond, C. S., Co., 521 Fifth Ave., New York 17, N.Y. Maps and wall atlases.

Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pa. Map slides.

McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 N. 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa. Desk and wall outline maps.

National Geographic Society, 1146 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Wall maps for upper grades.

Newsweek Educational Bureau, 152 W. 2nd St., New York, N.Y. News maps.

Nystrom, A. J., Co., 3333 Elston Ave., Chicago 18, Ill. Maps and globes.

Rand McNally Co., P. O. Box 7600, Chicago 80, Ill. Maps, globes, atlases.

United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, Department of Commerce, Washington 25, D.C. Charts and maps.

United States Department of the Interior, Geological Survey, Washington 25, D.C. Special interest maps, free folder on request.

United States Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Washington 25, D.C. Maps of recreational areas.

Weber Costello Co., Chicago Heights, Ill. Globes and maps.

11

MAKING MAPS

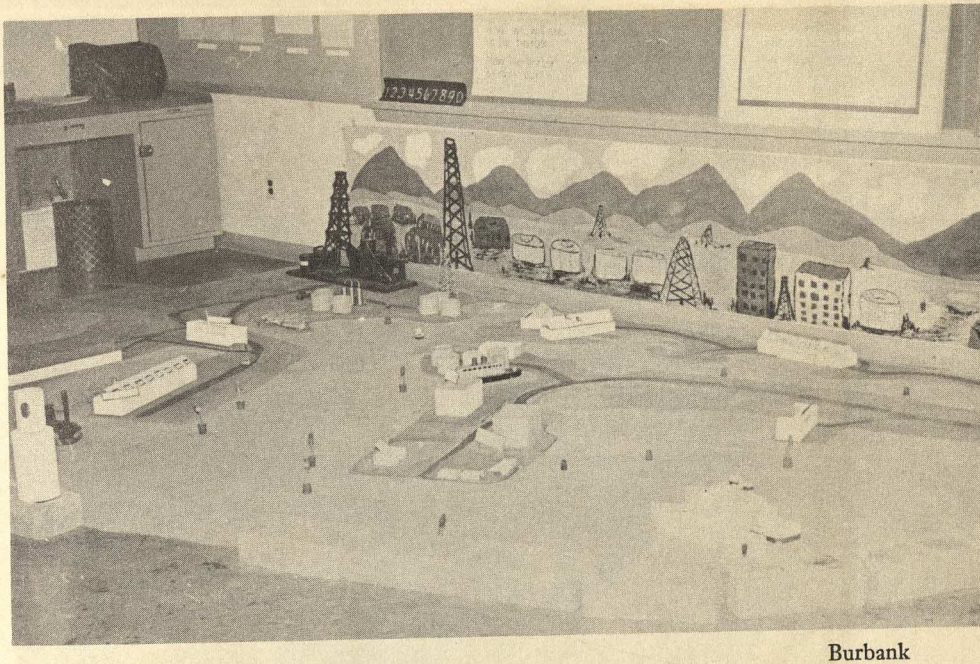
In addition to using maps, children should have many opportunities to make maps in the social studies. Careful attention should be given to accuracy so that true impressions rather than erroneous ideas of geographic conditions in places being studied will be learned. It is sound procedure to have children check their maps against comparable commercial and textbook maps as well as against information secured from reading and from audio-visual materials. A good supply of outline maps should be available for use in both individual and group map-making activities. Where possible standard practices should be observed in the use of colors and map symbols. As with other activities in the social studies, map making should be directly related to specific problems in the unit of work, not carried on as busy-work or as something isolated from a study of major human activities. The following list is suggestive of types and forms of maps that children can make.

1. Floor maps using blocks, boxes, and models, or chalk, tempera, and crayon on linoleum, paper, or oilcloth; simple line maps in the schoolyard.
2. Pictorial maps of community buildings, harbors, products, types of housing, food, clothing, plant and animal life, minerals and other resources, birthplaces of famous people, arts and crafts, modes of travel, methods of communication, raw materials.
3. Specimen maps using real items such as wheat, corn, cotton, and rocks.
4. Relief maps from papier-mâché, salt and flour, plaster of paris, clay, or moistened sand; large relief maps on a section of the schoolyard.
5. Mural maps with strips of paper for streets, pictures or silhouettes for buildings, and so forth.
6. Wall outline maps made by using an opaque projector or a pantograph.

Los Angeles

Can you provide opportunities for work on large outline maps as well as individual work on small desk maps in a unit you are planning?

7. Jigsaw puzzle maps of states and countries.
8. Slated maps and globes, or individual and wall outline maps to show air routes, famous flights, early explorations, trade routes, physical features, boundaries, rivers, and so forth.
9. Simple political and physical maps using colors to show various features.
10. Transportation maps using various line and dot patterns to show railroad lines, airplane routes, steamship lines, and major highways.
11. Progressive or developmental maps of a region or topic such as the Westward Movement, Colonization, or Industrial America.
12. Communication maps using symbols to show telephone lines, cable crossings, radio networks, and television networks.
13. Maps of features of special interest, such as national parks, state parks, major imports, major cities, seaports, river systems.
14. Historical maps of the Colonies, Early Travel Routes, Early Settlements.
15. Slides of small maps to be projected for group use.
16. Cellophane outline maps of products, rainfalls, and so forth, to place over physical maps in order to show relationships.

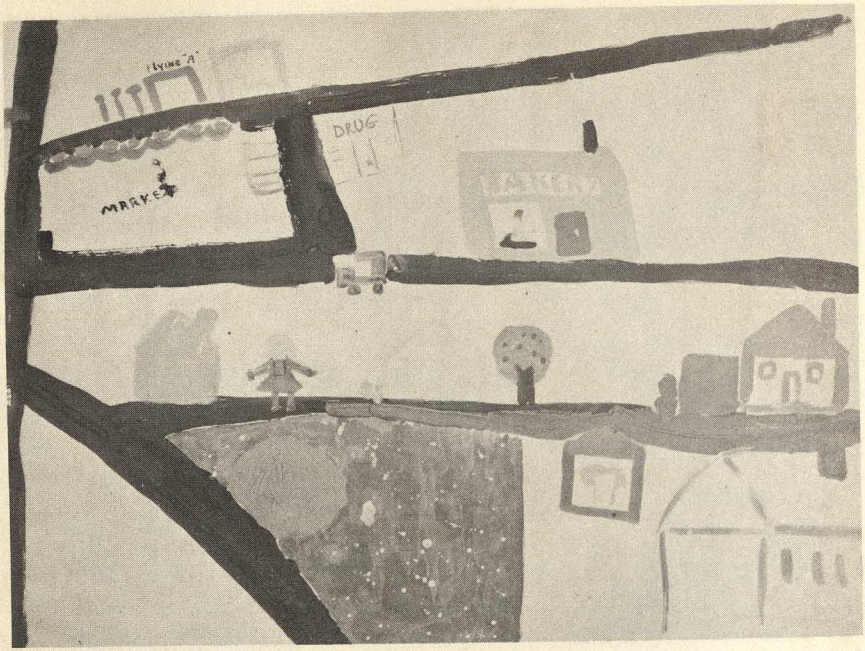


Burbank

Why should the making of a floor layout to show space relationships precede actual map making?

The foregoing should serve to illustrate the many opportunities in the social studies program for making maps. As a given unit of work is being planned, the teacher should think through the possibilities for map-making that are related to problems and topics in the unit. With adequate pre-planning and guidance by the teacher, children can make maps of surprising accuracy and artistry.

Growth in map-making skills begins with simple sketches on the school grounds and simple floor layouts in the classroom. After a short field trip, primary children may sketch the route on the ground showing where they started, where they went, and two or three important places they passed. Simple floor layouts may be made with blocks and boxes to show a field trip, important buildings around the school, or a few important places along a street in the community. Simple line sketches may be made on large sheets of paper on the floor. The school map and neighborhood map may be made on the floor or sketched on the chalkboard. Picture maps that are large in size and contain a few items are also appropriate in the primary grades. A combination of simple lines and pictures is also used effectively by some teachers. Later, as the expanded community is studied, simple community maps may be made and used to show water reservoirs, the railroad center, the post



Oakland

After a walk through the neighborhood, and after making a floor layout to show the bakery and other important places in the neighborhood, the children made this pictorial map.

office, and similar items. Care must be taken, however, to keep the maps uncluttered with detail. As larger areas are studied, such as the country, state, region, nation, and other countries, a variety of maps can be made, their scope depending upon the topics being studied and the maturity of the group.

MAP-MAKING TECHNIQUES

There are certain techniques which can be used to improve map making. It is recommended that teachers select from the suggestions which follow those that are most appropriate for children in their classrooms in terms of maturity, available materials, and important needs that have arisen for map making.

First Experiences. First map-making experiences should be realistic and concrete; they must be related to the child's immediate environment and based on concepts which he understands. The following are illustrative of those used by primary grade teachers:

Use blocks, or boxes, to make a simple floor layout of the neighborhood around the school. Begin with the school and the main street

Washington School,
Oakland

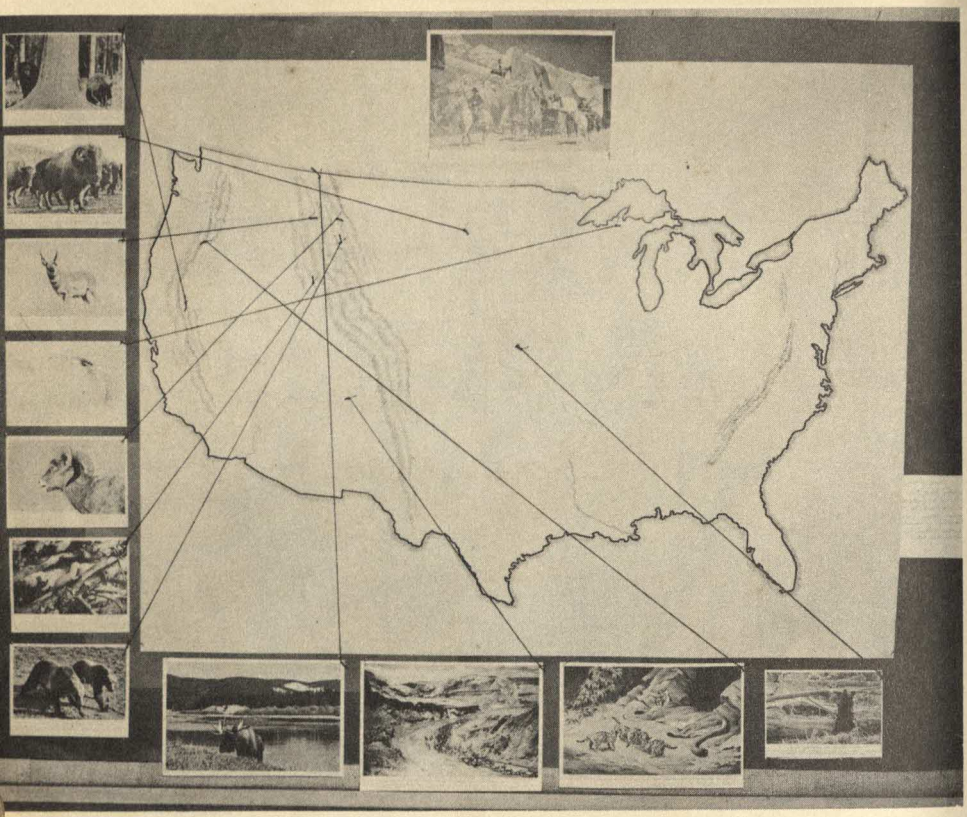
Black tape can be used to show streets on the community maps. If a change is needed, the tape can be lifted and replaced where it should be.

in front of the school; add other items known to the children. Do not get involved in a long drawn-out and detailed modeling project, since blocks can be used satisfactorily.

Make a simple drawing of the school and nearby places on a large strip of wrapping paper placed on the floor. After a field trip is a good time for such a project. Begin with the school, trace the route, put in key places seen, and mark the main streets clearly. Use colored paper cutouts, or crayon drawings, to show important places.

A floor map of a farm can be made by using objects made by children—barn, fences, trees, animals, trucks, silo, other buildings. Similarly, a layout can be made of the airport, harbor, or railroad yards.

On a map of the school district on which the school and streets are shown, have children locate the school, their homes, and the major buildings. Small pieces of colored paper can be used to show the



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How might you plan for the use of a large outline map in combination with pictures to show specific locations?

children's homes; have each child with his initials, or name, on the paper that represents his home before it is pasted or pinned to the map. Use larger pieces of paper to show the school, stores, and other buildings.

Sand-table maps can be made to show many different features: farm layout, airport or harbor layout, a well-known park, a section of the community, the community, the child's community and neighboring towns. Line the table up so that it parallels a major street or road; discuss the direction the road runs and where the sun rises and sets in relation to the table. Consider space between places, and locate major features accurately. Streets, or roads, should be laid out after a discussion of distances between places, thus providing readiness for later use of the scale. Use blocks, cutouts, or miniature buildings to locate places. Color hills, valleys, and water bodies.

Los Angeles

Why will these children long remember the trails of the pioneers?

A flannel board can be used effectively to show different space arrangements. The layout of the school grounds, neighborhood, or a farm, are illustrative of possible uses.

Airplane view maps can be made of a farm, airport, or the community. They may be made on a large piece of paper on the floor. For example, one group, after seeing the airport from the control tower, laid out the runways, hangars, beacons, nearby roads, and buildings as seen from above. Another group made a view map of a

section of their city after viewing it from a tall building. They also compared their map with aerial photos of the same section of the city.

Freehand drawing or sketching of maps is done in many classrooms after a trip, film, or discussion in which the purpose is to make a map of a small area, and when a map of the area is not available. If time permits it is helpful to lay out the area first with blocks, or in sand, so that the child gets a realistic impression of the surface features. In the primary grades sketches may be made of the neighborhood, the farm, harbor, airport, or other places being studied.

MAKING MAP OUTLINES. As children gain in experience and maturity, many needs will arise for both large and small map outlines; both individual and group projects should be provided. The techniques most frequently used to make outline maps follow:

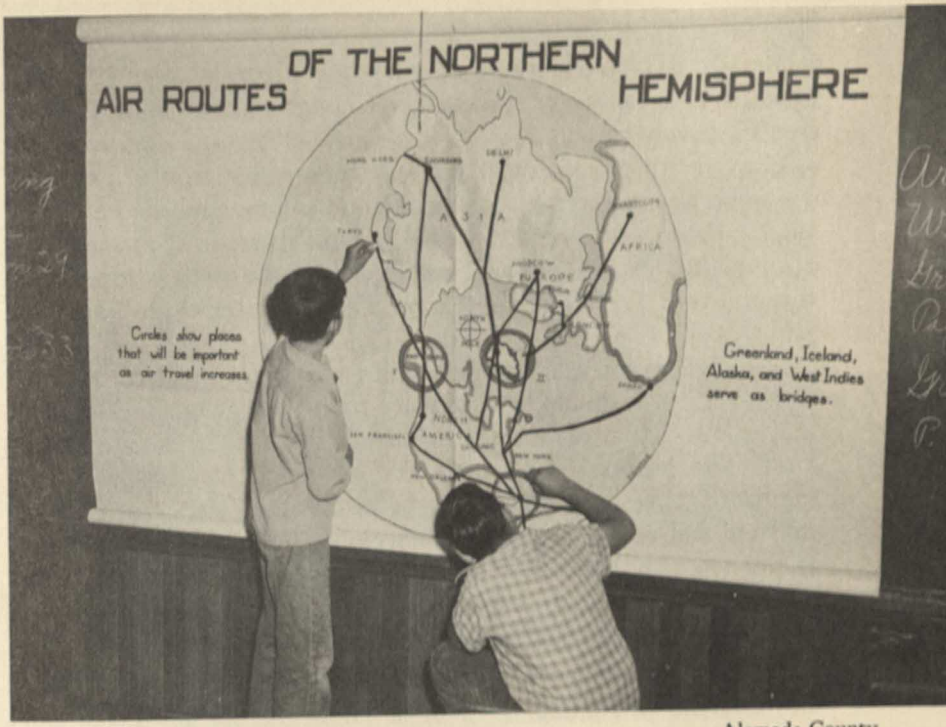
Use the opaque projector to make map enlargements; project maps from textbooks, newspapers, magazines, or references. Another method is to use slides in the 3¼" x 4" projector; these may be made by tracing on a frosted glass placed over the desired map, or they may be purchased. A third technique is to project and trace maps contained in film strips that present geographic content.

Use proportional squares to make enlargements. Draw small squares over the map to be enlarged, or trace a copy on tissue and then draw the squares. Draw the same number of large squares on butcher roll or tagboard. Mark the outline shown in each small square on the matching large square.

Make chalkboard map stencils by punching small holes one inch apart on a large map outline. Hold this against the chalkboard and pat over the holes with an eraser containing chalk dust. Mark a heavy line over the dots to show the outline clearly. Another procedure used by some teachers is the tracing of maps on the chalkboard utilizing cardboard outlines as a pattern.

Small outline maps can be prepared by teachers on stencils for reproduction on duplicating machines; some audio-visual departments in school systems furnish such outline maps on request. Printed desk maps can be secured inexpensively from commercial publishers.

Tracing paper or onion-skin can be used to make maps if no projectors are available. If a large map is to be traced, use scotch tape to fasten individual sheets of tracing paper together. Place the tracing paper over the map to be copied and outline the desired features. Place carbon paper on the sheet to which the map is to be transferred, lay



Alameda County

New perspectives of time and distances are secured when children make and use maps showing polar air routes. The globes should be referred to frequently when a map of this type is being made or used.

the tracing paper on it, use weights (books or blocks) to prevent slipping, and go over the map outline. Remove the tracing paper and carbons carefully to prevent smearing.

Completing Outline Maps. There are several points to keep in mind as children are guided to make accurate and attractive maps. A major emphasis throughout should be upon accuracy in presenting a *few* key ideas rather than a myriad of detail. It is better for children to make several simple maps which are clear and usable than it is to make one which is of little value because it is cluttered and difficult to read.

Materials for use in making flat maps should be selected with care. If tagboard or other slick-surfaced materials are used, India ink and pens for printing and sketching are better than wax crayons or calcimine type paint. Colored drawing pencils also may be used. On softer papers such as bogus, newsprint, construction, mimeograph, manila,

chipboard, and certain types of wrapping paper, wax crayons and tempera paint can be used successfully. Crayons and tempera also can be used effectively on window shades, muslin, percale, and the rough side of oilcloth. An effective technique is to use a hot iron to press the muslin between blotters after wax crayon has been applied. This technique is most effective when the crayon strokes are in the same direction and the right amount has been applied; if too much is applied the wax will run. Try a few samples on small pieces of cloth before the map is made.

In using colors for making physical maps, the standard, international color plan should be used–blue for water, green for lowlands, and yellow, orange and brown for higher altitudes. In using colors to show other features–states, countries, historical changes such as the frontiers during different periods–be sure to use colors that contrast well and that do not decrease visibility of lettering. The end product should be a map that is clear, sharp in color contrast, and easy to read.

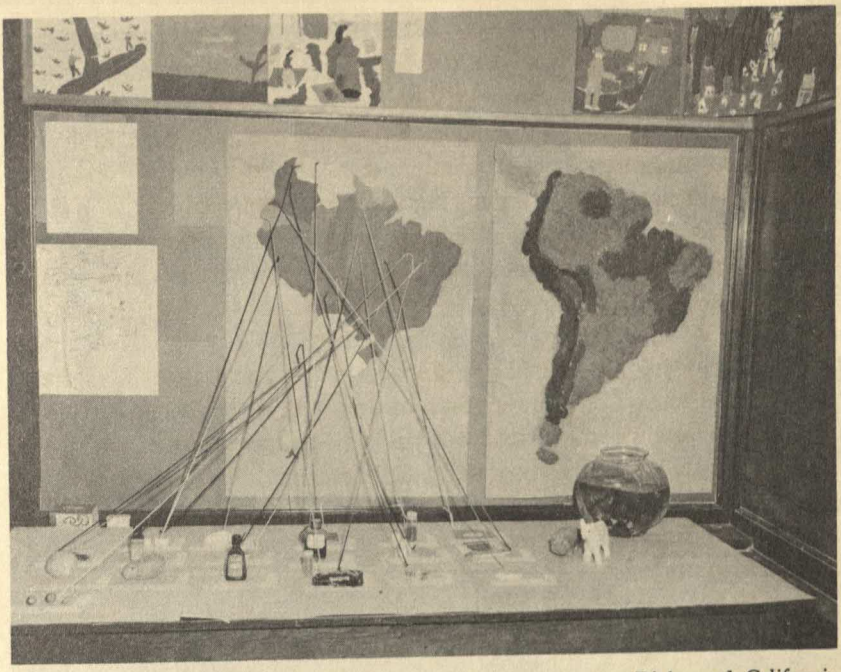
If lines, dots, or shaded areas are used, be sure to plan for contrast and clear lettering. Some teachers have pupils print the lettering on white strips which can be placed over shaded areas and thus stand out.

All lettering on maps should be done clearly and neatly. Have children print difficult terms first on a piece of practice paper. Give attention to spacing, spelling, and proper use of abbreviations. Wherever possible have all words printed parallel to each other. Guide children in close examination of wall and textbook maps in order to discover ways to line up lettering effectively on their maps.

Encourage the use of pictures and specimens to highlight ideas portrayed on maps. Use ribbon, or yarn, running from the picture (or specimen) to its location on the map.

Guide the group to select symbols that effectively portray what is shown. Have them check other maps, and in addition, suggest symbols that seem to them to be appropriate. Consider the use of paper cutouts, hand-drawn symbols, colored symbols, pins with varied colored bead heads, and symbols carved in pencil eraser heads, or stickprints, which can be reproduced easily by pressing on an ink pad and stamping on the map. Movable symbols also may be used.

The legend, or key to the map, can be planned for placement in a corner of the map. The title, symbols, colors, shading, scale or other pertinent data should be shown clearly. A neat border around the legend will set it off clearly and add to its appearance. Make the legend



Richmond, California

How might you use this device to show the location of products in a unit you are planning?

on a separate piece of paper so that the map will not be ruined if a change or correction must be made in the legend.

Give attention to directions on the map. Use arrows where necessary to show the flow of a river, wind currents, or ocean currents. Orientation of the map may be shown by using arrows in one corner to show the cardinal directions.

Puzzle maps (jigsaw maps) can be made from plywood, beaverboard, or heavy chipboard. Outline the map, trace in major features to be shown (states, regions, produce areas), and color in rivers, lakes, and other significant features. Saw into reasonable and logical sections by means of a jigsaw or coping saw. Fasten the border that remains to a whole piece of plywood; this can be used as a holder into which the cutout pieces can be placed. If it is a map of the United States, the border can be labeled to show relative location of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and Canada and Mexico. Encourage children to make puzzle maps of their own.

Another type of puzzle map can be made of felt. Secure a large piece of green felt for the base and several smaller pieces of different colored felt to use as sections. Make a paper pattern of the desired

Los Angeles

Arrange flat maps and modeled relief maps so that children can make comparisons.

region, e.g., the United States. Lay the pattern on the large piece of green felt and cut around the edges. Glue the whole map to a piece of plywood, cardboard, or chipboard; this is the base map on which the smaller sections can be placed. Next, mark sections on the paper pattern (New England States, Pacific States, etc.); cut pattern into marked sections; place each section on a colored piece of felt and cut around edges of section. The cutouts will adhere to the base map when placed on it. Make other cutouts to represent different regions and thus vary the use of the puzzle map.

Hooked rug maps are decorative and not difficult to make. Outline the map on a piece of burlap with chalk and tack it to a box or wooden frame. Use a hooked rug needle to sew in heavy yarn. Select colors to show boundaries, states, provinces, or other features. Have children practice using the needle before they work on the map.

MODELED RELIEF MAPS

Modeled relief maps can be used in the discussion of such problems as why people settle in certain places, why highways are built in certain places, where mountain passes are located, how mountain ranges cause certain areas to be dry and other areas to receive much rainfall, how climate is affected by terrain, how areas are drained by rivers, and a host of other questions related to distance, travel, elevation, and topography. The use of relief maps enables the child to envision surface features and conditions within the area being studied.

It must be remembered that the vertical scale on relief maps is different from the horizontal scale. For example, Pike's Peak which may be prominent on a relief map is only a tiny pin point on the earth's surface when its elevation (under 3 miles) is considered in relation to the circumference of the earth (25,000 miles). However, one child, who had seen it, said, "It was no pin point from where I saw it," thus indicating that relief on smaller areas stands out dramatically and realistically. By mapping smaller areas, less distortion is introduced. However, when large areas are mapped, considerable distortion will be introduced and should be considered as children grow in their understanding of map scale. One technique is to draw a long line on the chalkboard to represent the distance across the area being mapped. Then draw vertical lines to show the relative height of mountains, plateaus, and other features to be shown. Thus, if a mountain approximately three miles high is located in an area 300 miles long, the vertical line would be one inch while the base line would be 300 inches, or a half inch to 150, or a quarter inch to 75 inches. After such a demonstration, one fifth grader said, "Gee, that mountain isn't so high when you think of how long the ground is." When distortion exists, it is wise to explain that we are making features relatively higher than they should be to show them more clearly.

The outline on which the relief map is made should be prepared carefully. In fact, it is wise procedure to make two outline maps and to use the second one as a working guide while the modeling material is being placed on the relief map. Then, when one area is covered or one layer is on, the second outline map is available for easy reference. Make a list of the features that are to be shown; show pictures illustrating them (the jagged Rockies, long flat prairies, great valleys) and guide children to find them on physical maps, either wall maps or maps in atlases. Make the map outline by means of a projector or one

of the other methods discussed on pages 304-305. Sketch in rivers, mountains, other features, and contour lines where needed. Use colors to note changes in elevation; check wall maps or a school atlas to insure accuracy. After the outline is mounted on a base board, drive brads and small nails to show relative height and position of peaks, mountain ranges, and hills; these serve as guides during the modeling process. Anticipate and discuss common errors that arise such as gross distortion of features (hills and mountains too large), omission of significant features (lakes, valleys, dams), inaccuracy of slope (rivers running uphill), errors in relative location of features (mountains extending into plains), and mistakes in relative size of features (Appalachians and Rockies same height). Plan for gradual upslopes from plains to hills to mountains where appropriate. Some teachers also find it helpful during the making of the outline to show and discuss relief maps made by classes of preceding years; attention is given to good points and to points needing improvement, and the outline is modified accordingly.

Many relief maps can be made and used without coloring them in any way. The features will stand out clearly and the surface will speak for itself as children use the map. In other instances, it is helpful to paint the surface to highlight features and to show contrasts. Tempera type water paint works very well; the surface can be protected by shellacking after it has dried. Enamel also can be used if the surface is shellacked first. Another effective technique is to place sawdust in a can or jar of powdered paint and to shake thoroughly; after coating the areas to be colored with glue, sprinkle the sawdust on and allow the glue to dry; brush off any loose particles. Clean sand can be used in a similar manner. Be sure to plan carefully for the use of different colors on appropriate sections of the map so that they will be clear in contrast and consistent with standard uses of color on maps.

RECIPES FOR MODELING MATERIAL

There are several different recipes that can be used to model relief maps. If the maps are to be used for a short period of time, simple and inexpensive recipes should be used, and the finishing of the surface with paint and shellac will be unnecessary. If the maps are to be used often, they should be well made and shellacked to protect the surface.

PASTE AND PAPER. Tear paper towels or newspapers into 1½-inch pieces. Put paste on one piece at a time, wad it or shape it with your

Washington School,
Oakland

Children should be given an opportunity to make individual relief maps as well as group outline maps. Note how directions are shown on the corner of the map.

fingers, and stick it on the map outline. Build up hills and mountains as desired. Paint with tempera paint after the paste has dried.

Paper Strips and Paste. Use crumpled paper to build up terrain; use string or masking tape to hold paper in place. Dip half-inch strips of toweling into wheat paste and place them on the crumpled paper form. After two layers have been placed on the map, coat the entire surface with paste and allow to dry; secure the base of the map so that it cannot buckle. After the map is dry, paint with calcimine type paint.

Sawdust and Paste. Mix any sawdust, except redwood or cedar, with wheat paste (from wallpaper store); spoon paste into sawdust until it is well moistened and of good modeling consistency. The mix-

ture may be applied directly to wood or cardboard. Paint it after it is dry.

PAPIER-MÂCHÉ. This is one of the most popular modeling materials. Tear 20 to 25 newspaper sheets (or paper towels) into fine shreds and soak for 24 hours. Pulverize the soaked paper by rubbing it over a washboard, or by kneading it. Add wheat paste (or 4 cups of flour and 2 cups of salt) until mixture is of same consistency as modeling clay. Build up mountains, plateaus, and hills by applying papier-mâché mixture to the surface. After 3 to 6 days of drying, paint elevations, water, and other features.

SALT AND FLOUR. Mix equal parts of salt and flour, using only enough water to hold the ingredients together. Apply to map outline, modeling the terrain according to plan. Keep out of humid places because salt attracts moisture.

ASBESTOS PULP. Excellent large or small relief maps can be made of asbestos pulp (from plumbing and heating shop). Mix 5 lbs. of asbestos pulp with 2 handfuls of wheat paste; add water to secure a consistency similar to clay that is ready for use in modeling. Use the mixture on a plywood, chipboard, or beaverboard base. Build up one layer at a time. Smooth the joining sections (around mountains, lakes and hills) carefully to prevent cracking. After 3 to 6 days of drying, paint with poster or powder paint. Shellac if map is to be handled much.

BURLAP AND PATCHING PLASTER. Finished results can be obtained by immersing burlap in patching plaster. Build terrain on outline by using crumpled paper and masking tape. Lay a piece of burlap (or towel) over the outline and cut along edges to get a good fit. Remove burlap and soak it thoroughly in Spackle, or other patching plaster mix, which has been mixed to consistency of pancake batter; knead the plaster mix in so that the burlap is well soaked. Lay the soaked burlap over the outline, fitting it into hills, valleys, and other features. After about 30 minutes and before the plaster is completely dry, paint with calcimine type paint. If it is completely dry the paint may flake and crack.

PLASTER. Because maps made of plaster are heavy, many teachers use it only for small maps. Mix 5 lbs. of plaster with 2 handfuls of wheat paste. Add water to get consistency of modeling clay. Build up layers, let dry for 3 to 6 days, and paint.

PLASTER AND SAWDUST. Mix 1 pint of plaster, 1 pint of sawdust and a quarter pint of paste that has been dissolved in water. Knead

and apply to map outline. Paint after the mixture has set for 15 to 30 minutes.

PLASTER AND PAPIER-MÂCHÉ. Add 2 pints of plaster, a quarter tablespoon of LePage's glue, and a half pint of water to prepared papier-mâché. Be sure that the mixture is of modeling consistency. Paint after mixture has set 30 to 45 minutes.

PLASTIC STARCH AND DETERGENT. Mix 1 part plastic starch with 4 parts detergent. Beat mixture until it is fluffy and apply to map outline. Be careful of the surface because it crumbles easily.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Which of the map-making activities suggested in this chapter are appropriate for use in a unit of work you are planning?
2. How can you make map-making activities an important part of the problem-solving process?
3. How can map-making as mere *busy-work* be avoided in the social studies?
4. Try the different techniques suggested for making outline maps. Which can you use in a unit you are planning?
5. Complete a large outline map which you can use in a unit of work. Use the techniques suggested in this chapter. Note tips and suggestions that will be of help in guiding children to complete outline maps.
6. Try the various recipes for modeling material. Which do you think would be easiest for children to use to make a relief map?

REFERENCES

1. Consult the references at the end of the preceding chapter.
2. Consult past and current issues of the following magazines for specific map-making activities:
   Journal of Geography, *Instructor*, *Grade Teacher*

Greenhood, David, *Down to Earth–Map Making for Everybody*. New York: Holiday House, 1951. Information on types of maps, how to make maps, and how to make a collection of maps.

12

READING MATERIALS AND LITERATURE IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Reading materials can be used to open the gateway to many vital learnings in the social studies. Family and community living, places near and far, great men and women, children of other times and places, stories of people in other cultures, life in America today and early times, the story of industries, and a host of other topics are included in social studies material. As a result of reading experiences, the child can identify himself with others, gain new concepts and understandings, and develop positive attitudes toward others and richer appreciations of their ways of living. Reading ability and study skills can be strengthened as the child engages in functional reading to solve problems in units of work. The many new concepts developed in the social studies promote the child's growth in developmental reading. Many opportunities also exist for recreational reading as stories, novels, and biographies are made available to children in connection with units of work.

TYPES OF READING MATERIALS

Many different types of reading material are needed to meet individual differences in reading level, present different points of view, and provide adequate backgrounds of understanding of people, processes, and places studied in units of work. *Textbooks* are available on geography, history, civics, and a combination of the foregoing; related reading, science, health, and literature texts are also used. *Reference* materials include almanacs, anthologies, atlases, dictionaries, directories, encyclopedias, gazetteers, government bulletins, scrapbooks, and yearbooks. *Fugitive* materials include such items as pamphlets, leaflets, bulletins, folders, and similar free and inexpensive materials. *Current* materials include children's weekly news publications, children's mag-

azines, daily newspapers, and adult magazines. *Literary* materials include poetry, fiction, folklore, biography, short stories, and travel books. *Source* materials that can be used as special needs arise in a unit include letters, logs of activities, diaries, minutes of meetings, timetables, recipes, directions, ballots, and maps. *Reading charts* on group standards, needs for material, vocabulary, questions, and directions are also widely used.

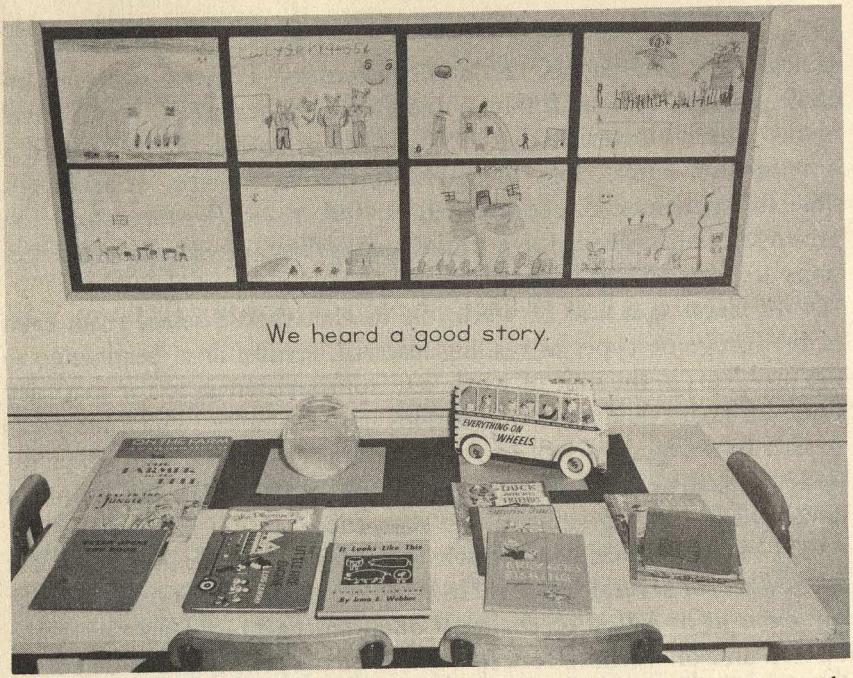
In planning a unit of work, the teacher should select from each of the foregoing types of reading material. Availability, pertinence to the problems in the unit of work, and appropriateness to the maturity of children are guiding considerations in determining which materials to use. By using a variety of reading resources, along with other instructional materials, the problem-solving process can be improved and critical thinking skills can be sharpened.

The use of multiple textbooks along with other reading resources is essential for several reasons. No single textbook can possibly present sufficient information to cover all questions and problems that come up in a unit of work. If concepts are to be deepened, and understandings are to be based on a solid background of information, varied sources must be used, not just a single textbook. Furthermore, because the wide range of reading ability among children in a typical class may extend over five or six grades, each child needs material on his reading level; if a single text is used you can be sure that several children are wasting time and learning little or nothing. In addition, different viewpoints can be presented and discussed when many types of reading materials are used.

SELECTING READING MATERIALS

The problem of selecting reading materials for the social studies is a critical one for several reasons: [1] (1) The amount budgeted for textbooks is small in most school systems, and much of it goes for basic texts in the skill subjects. The small amount left for social studies materials must be spent as wisely as possible. (2) Social studies reading materials must be selected with special reference to the units of work in the program and at the same time be appropriate to the maturity of the children for whom they are selected. The wide variation of programs from school system to school system, coupled with

[1] For a good review see Gertrude Whipple, "Desirable Materials, Facilities and Resources for Reading," *Reading in the Elementary School*, Forty-eighth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1949, pp. 147-171.



Los Angeles

Can you plan an attractive center of interest such as this one which includes a variety of reading materials?

the range of individual differences, thus presents problems. This is particularly true in the intermediate and upper grades. Many texts with the content related to the units in a given grade are too difficult for the children. Some excellent materials are not in text form, and analysis must be made of other types such as booklets or pamphlets. (3) The multiplicity of booklets, pamphlets, and textbooks now available must be scrutinized carefully in order to secure materials that meet local needs. (4) The materials themselves must meet basic criteria (such as those presented in the following paragraphs) so that they will contribute maximally to the social studies program. It is folly to plan a program and then to limit its effectiveness by selecting poor reading materials.

In selecting social studies textbooks, judgments of both teachers and children should be secured. Judgments of teachers may be secured through the use of carefully planned rating devices. It is helpful if the rating made by teachers can be based upon both a critical analysis of the materials and experience in using them with a group of children. Cooperative group appraisals are generally more effective than appraisals made by a single teacher. Judgments of children can be secured

by observing them as they examine different materials, keeping a record of frequency of choices, noting comments, having them read and evaluate selected sections, getting reactions to pictures and format, trying out special aids such as the index and table of contents, and having the children stack the materials in order of preference. Caution must be exerted lest the children be taken in by a single factor such as pictures. This can be avoided by having them read various sections, and then asking specific questions that stimulate an examination of several factors. Obviously pupil judgment must be coupled with teachers' ratings in making final decisions.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION. An essential procedure for the selection of reading materials is careful analysis in the light of specific criteria. Factors typically included are qualifications of the author, authenticity of material, relation of content to the program, attractiveness, difficulty, size of type, organization and format, study aids, and aids for teachers. The checklist on page 318 is illustrative of the criteria customarily used in appraising textbooks.

Specific criteria are helpful in appraising textbooks dealing with other lands. A committee established by the National Council of Teachers of English developed the following criteria for use in evaluating books on foreign countries: [2]

1. Is the author qualified to write about his chosen subject?
2. What purpose did the author have in writing the book?
3. Is the book truthful in the presentation of facts?
4. Does the book present real characterizations?
5. Do the illustrations strengthen the meanings of the printed page?
6. Is the language of the book well-chosen?
7. Has the book been approved by a native of the region?
8. Has the spirit of the book a far-reaching significance?

An important task in rating textbooks is the development of specific procedures for applying criteria to textbooks that have been selected for analysis. For example, in determining if the content is related to the program, a specific check should be made of the table of contents and sample chapters in the book. A criterion such as degree of interest and appeal to children can be checked by actually having children read comparable sections of textbooks. The degree to which pictures and drawings add meaning to the content can be determined

[2] Azile Wofford (Chairman, Committee on Standards for Books about Other Lands of the National Council of Teachers of English), "Standards for Choosing Books about Other Countries," *Elementary English*, 24:469-473, 494, November, 1947. (Quoted in Whipple, *op. cit.*)

Checklist for Evaluating Textbooks

Directions: Rate each book on the specific points listed below as follows: 5-Superior, 4-Good, 3-Fair, 2-Poor, 1-Unsatisfactory.

Criteria for Rating each Textbook	*Textbooks* A	B	C	D	E	F
As an instructional resource:						
Is it related to the content of the program?						
Is it accurate and up to date?						
Can concepts and understandings be grasped by children who will use it?						
Is level of reading difficulty—vocabulary, style of presentation, sentence structure—appropriate for children who will use it?						
Will it contribute to problem-solving skills?						
Do illustrative materials—maps, pictures, drawings—contribute to the meaningfulness of the content?						
Are study aids, suggested activities, and related references adequate?						
Physical features:						
Is it attractive and appealing to children?						
Are margins and page arrangements adequate?						
Are size, spacing, and type size adequate?						
Major emphases:						
Does the book inspire loyalty to American ideals and institutions?						
Does it contain material that can be used to develop positive attitudes?						
Are generalizations supported by facts?						
Are controversial issues handled fairly and objectively?						
Are movements and trends emphasized rather than isolated events?						
Does it stimulate interests that lead to further study?						
Total						

by examining several illustrations to discover relationships to the text. Each criterion should thus be considered with reference to the procedure that should be used in arriving at a fair rating.

Pamphlets, leaflets, charts, maps and other free and inexpensive materials also must be appraised critically to determine their value in the program. A vast number of companies, consular offices, agencies and organizations prepare materials for use in schools. To use them indiscriminately and without careful scrutiny is a violation of principles we are endeavoring to teach in the social studies. The criteria most frequently used for evaluating free and inexpensive materials are: [3]

1. Is the material published by a reputable group?
2. Are any ideas promulgated which run counter to democratic ideals?
3. Are concepts, style of writing, and readability on the child's level?
4. Is the material related to specific units of work?
5. Are authoritative sources given for facts presented?
6. Is the material objective and free from bias?
7. Is the material up to date, and unavailable from textbooks?
8. Has good taste been used in language and illustrations?
9. Are type size, spacing, and format satisfactory?
10. Is the material free from obtrusive advertising?
11. Must the school carry out obligations for using the material?

INFORMATION ON READING MATERIALS

The reviews and criticisms of textbooks and library materials that have been made by critics and teachers are also helpful guides to use in selecting reading materials. Educational journals, library journals, and other sources that carry reviews should be checked. The sources following have been found to be helpful in locating and selecting supplementary reading materials and library books.

PERIODICALS:

Horn Book
Saturday Review
Publisher's Weekly
New York Times
New York Herald Tribune

[3] Adapted from I. O. Addicott, *A Study of the Nature and Elementary School Use of Free Printed Matter Prepared as Advertising Media.* Doctoral Dissertation. Stanford University, 1939, p. 169; and J. D. Crambs, *Using Current Materials to Study Current Problems.* Stanford University Press, 1952, p. 27.

Elementary English
Social Education

BOOKS AND BULLETINS:

Bibliography of Books for Children, Association of Childhood Education
Children's Catalog, H. W. Wilson Company
Adventuring with Books, National Council of Teachers of English
Basic Book Collection for Elementary Grades, American Library Association
Bulletin of Children's Book Center, University of Chicago
Annotated List of Books for Supplementary Reading, Children's Reading Service
Children's Books . . . for Eighty-five Cents or Less, Association for Childhood Education
Inexpensive Books for Boys and Girls, American Library Association

OTHER SOURCES:

Anthologies and textbooks on children's literature.
Bibliographies in units of work and courses of study.
Booklists prepared by the National Congress of Parents and state and local library associations, and the United States Office of Education.
Catalogue, announcements, and exhibits of publishers.

DETERMINING LEVEL OF DIFFICULTY. Securing reading materials on a level of difficulty appropriate for the children who will use them is a critical problem. Two procedures have been used successfully to meet this problem. One technique is to have the children read the materials, the reading being followed by discussion, examination, and consideration of the difficulties that they encounter. A second technique is to apply one or more reading formulas [4] in order to secure an

[4] For a good discussion of readability (and readability formulas) see the following articles: Harold E. Burtt, "Typography and Readability," *Elementary English*, 26:212-221, April, 1949; Edgar Dale and Jeanne S. Chall, "A Formula for Predicting Readability," *Educational Research Bulletin*, 21:11-20, 28, January 21, 1948; ———, "Techniques for Selecting and Writing Readable Materials." *Elementary English*, 26:250-258, May, 1949; ———, "The Concept of Readability," *Elementary English*, 26:19-26, January, 1949; E. W. Dolch, "The Use of Vocabulary Lists in Predicting Readability and in Developing Reading Materials," *Elementary English*, 26:142-149, 177, March, 1949; Rudolph Flesch, "A Dissenting Opinion on Readability," *Elementary English*, 26:332-334, 340, October, 1949; William S. Gray, "Progress in the Study of Readability," *Elementary School Journal*, 47:491-499, May, 1947; William S. Gray and Bernice E. Leary, *What Makes a Book Readable?* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935; Irving Lorge, "Readability Formulae—An Evaluation," *Elementary English*, 26:86-95, February, 1949; Morton S. Malter, "Children's Preferences for Illustrative Materials," *Journal of Educational Research*, 41:378-385, January, 1948; Carleton Washburne and Mabel Vogel Morphett, "Grade Placement of Children's Books," *Elementary School Journal*, 38:355-364, January, 1938; and Gerald A. Yoakam, "The Reading Difficulty of School Textbooks," *Elementary English Review*, 12:304-309, December, 1945.

objective rating of the level of difficulty in terms of grade placement. Moiso [5] used this technique and reported that some social studies texts are too difficult for the grades in which they are being used. Michaelis analyzed United Nations materials [6] and found them to be on such an advanced reading level that they were unsuitable for use in Grades VII and VIII.

Reading formulas are easy to apply but require a considerable amount of time. By spreading the work among a large number of teachers it is possible to appraise many different textbooks without undue burden on any one person. In order to secure reliable ratings it is helpful to have two persons make independent analyses and then compare them.

GUIDELINES FOR USING READING MATERIALS

Children use reading materials for a variety of purposes in the social studies. They read and study them to get information needed in construction, to secure ideas for use in dramatic play, to understand better the problems of others, to get answers to questions, to learn about faraway places, to identify, clarify, and solve problems, to make more intelligent choices and decisions, to check on suggestions and opinions, to verify information, to increase backgrounds of understanding, to learn how to carry out processes (such as carding wool), to evaluate various reading materials, and to select materials to meet specific needs as they arise. Reading is truly one of the basic techniques for use in solving problems in the social studies, and its usefulness in problem solving increases as children mature and grow in reading ability.

Perhaps a word of caution is appropriate at this point. Although reading is a most valuable skill and should be viewed as one of the important techniques in the problem-solving process, it should not be the sole approach to the solution of problems in the social studies. It is one of several methods used to secure information related to needs and problems that arise in the unit of work. It is most effective when used with other problem-solving techniques. Secondly, reading materials should not determine the program; they should be keyed to the units of work in the course of study and used to enrich the program.

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[5] John Moiso, "Reading Difficulty of Certain California State Textbooks," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, 15:167-170, February and May, 1947.

[6] John U. Michaelis, "United Nations Reading Materials," *Social Education*, 14:221-222, May, 1950.

A great difficulty in some schools lies in the mistaken belief that reading a basic set of social studies textbooks is an adequate social studies program. Related materials such as maps, charts, pictures, and films should be used to verify ideas, secure additional information, and enrich the understandings grasped through reading. Each type of material and each experience related to a given topic should enrich, reinforce, and strengthen the others. Thus, the ideas gained from reading should be checked against past and present experiences and used with ideas secured in later experiences, with the result that reading becomes a part of the problem-solving process and not an isolated experience.

The cautions above in no way lessen the importance of reading in the social studies; rather they accentuate the need for giving expert consideration to the problems involved in effective utilization of reading materials in the social studies. Reading is an efficient means of getting ideas quickly and clearly on many topics in the social studies. The ways in which reading is used in the social studies should be consistent with ways in which instruction is given in the reading program. Reading experiences in both areas should be complementary, each enriching the other, and must be paced on the level of competence possessed by each child in the group. Attention must be given to new terms, social concepts, complex understandings, names of strange places, compactness of material, shifts in word meanings, differences in points of view, controversial issues, use of related materials, and relationship of reading to other experiences in the social studies program.

There are certain techniques that teachers should keep in mind as they guide children's reading in social studies. The first step is to be sure the children are ready for the specific reading material that is to be used whether it is a pamphlet, a chapter, a story or some other material. In preparing them to read the selection the children should be guided to recall related experiences. Specific questions should be asked of the children which will bring out things that they have done which are related to the reading. Background concepts and ideas should also be presented so that they will not encounter undue difficulty in reading materials. Words that will cause trouble should be anticipated by the teacher, key phrases should be taught, and any complex ideas that should be discussed by the group should be emphasized. And, by all means, as part of the preparation for reading a given selection, the teacher should make sure that all members of the group have a clear purpose for reading. The reading selection

should be related to questions or problems that come up in the unit of work; and exactly how this selection will help them to answer questions or solve one of their problems should be pointed out.

Special attention needs to be given to the interpretation of reading materials in social studies. Children should be encouraged to identify themselves with characters in the story and to visualize what is going on in the story. The more vivid the images which they have as they read, the better will they be able to interpret what they read. It is well to ask questions to help them draw conclusions, discover relationships, note disagreements with other sources of information, and make judgments about what they read. Pictures must not be overlooked and each child should be encouraged to look at the pictures carefully and to note ideas they contribute to the text. Also, children should be helped to organize what they have read so that there will be some system to their use of the material. Through group discussions, chart making, note taking, outlining, and the drawing of pictures and maps, children can organize reading material for various uses.

Of course, children should be encouraged to do a considerable amount of independent reading. Books on various reading levels, well illustrated materials, pamphlets, charts, labels, scrapbooks, and other resources should be available for independent reading. The children should be encouraged to check books out of the room library, the school library, and the neighborhood library. A card file can be developed in which each child may briefly summarize interesting items he has discovered in books he has read on his own. The children should, of course, be referred to this card file to find books that they might enjoy reading.

Purposeful and Functional Reading. Clear purposes for reading various materials in the social studies should be defined and established as problems and needs arise in the unit of work. Each child should know the relationship of the reading experience to other experiences in the unit, and the specific problems or needs that can be met through reading selected materials. Such purposes as finding out about the food eaten by the pioneers, and the furniture they made, and checking on pioneer clothing for use in a play, are illustrative of those which give direction and significance to reading.

The ideas secured through reading should be put to practical use in solving problems in the unit of work. After the pupils have read the material, discussions should be held in which they consider appropriateness of ideas, authenticity, varying interpretations, needs for other information, and tentative conclusions related to problems in

the unit. Formal questioning to "check up" on them, filling in blanks, or similar types of busy-work are undesirable. Rather, a positive approach should be used so that the material they have read contributes to the solution of important problems and purposes of concern to the group.

USING AND STRENGTHENING READING ABILITIES. Consideration should be given to the specific reading abilities and study skills needed for various purposes in the social studies; examples are skimming, getting details, getting main ideas, getting an overview, securing directions, following directions, evaluating material, organizing facts or ideas, summarizing by outlining or note taking, determining a sequence of events, remembering key ideas, using information in problem solving, adjusting rate of reading to purpose and difficulty of material, and locating information. During planning discussions, attention may well be given to the specific techniques the children should use as they read selected materials.

Reading difficulties should be noted as they arise in the social studies so that specific attention may be given to them in the reading period or at some other time. For example, if a given group has difficulty in getting ideas in order, or in relating specific details to major problems, then the teacher may well plan specific practice on these skills. Such a procedure gives significance and importance to reading skills and at the same time improves the use of reading in the social studies. In many instances it is necessary to plan specific learning situations in which attention can be given to the skills needed in locating materials. This can be done by using the materials available to the group in directed work in locating needed information. For example, one group used the index to locate the specific pages dealing with food, clothing, and housing in Mexico. Attention was given to specific techniques in group discussion with the group working together to locate the pages on food. After questions were clarified the class went to work on the other topics with the teacher giving assistance as needed. Following this directed experience other texts and references were consulted with specific help given by the teacher as new problems arose. A similar procedure can be used with other aids such as the table of contents or the encyclopedia.

SKILLS IN LOCATING MATERIALS. In problem solving in the social studies, children find many needs for additional information and material. This makes it necessary for them to develop skills that can be used to locate supplementary materials. In this connection children need to learn how to use the card catalogue, indexes, the table of

contents, encyclopedias, atlases, dictionaries, newspapers, magazines, almanacs, and other references.

The skills involved in using the table of contents and the index must be taught systematically and used functionally in many different situations. The table of contents should be located and discussed as books are introduced. There are three basic facts that the child should learn: (1) the table of contents is in the front of the book, (2) topics are listed in order as chapter titles or titles of stories, and (3) it can be used to find major topics or titles, and to get an overview of what is presented in the book. Immediate practice should be given in finding topics and chapters related to questions that have come up in the unit work. For example, in a book on The Westward Movement, the teacher may ask: "Which chapters present ideas on explorers?" "Where can we find something about the Oregon Trail?" "Do you see other chapters on questions that have come up?" By using the table of contents in this way children develop the habit of noting and locating the broader topics that are treated in a given book.

The index is more detailed and somewhat more difficult to use. The child must be able to use the alphabet, find the key word to a topic, and then locate the key word in the index. A few minutes spent in acquainting a group with the index will save considerable time in the long run and will facilitate individual utilization. Explain the use of italics, punctuation marks, and transposed word order by actually discussing the index in one of their textbooks. Give attention to any pattern that is used such as topics under countries or states. For example, under Australia may be listed *agriculture*, *climate*, *transportation*, etc. Ask the class to check other countries to see if a similar pattern is used. Next, ask under what heading can be found information on wheat and other crops? Point out that crops of various types come under agriculture. Have them list specific examples that will come under other topics.

By giving group guidance of this type followed up with actual use of the index in locating material related to the unit, children will develop a wholesome attitude toward utilization of the index and will make rapid progress in learning this important skill. Some teachers also find it helpful to make summary charts for reference as shown in Charts 1 and 2.

Other skills important in locating information are discussed later in the section on library skills.

Building a Social Studies Vocabulary. In order to read social studies material children must be able to identify the words which

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. *Where?* In the front or the back?
2. *Why?* To show order and location of chapters.
3. *When to Use?* When title of chapter or story is wanted.
4. *How to Use?* Skim down the list to locate page of chapter.

Chart 1

INDEX

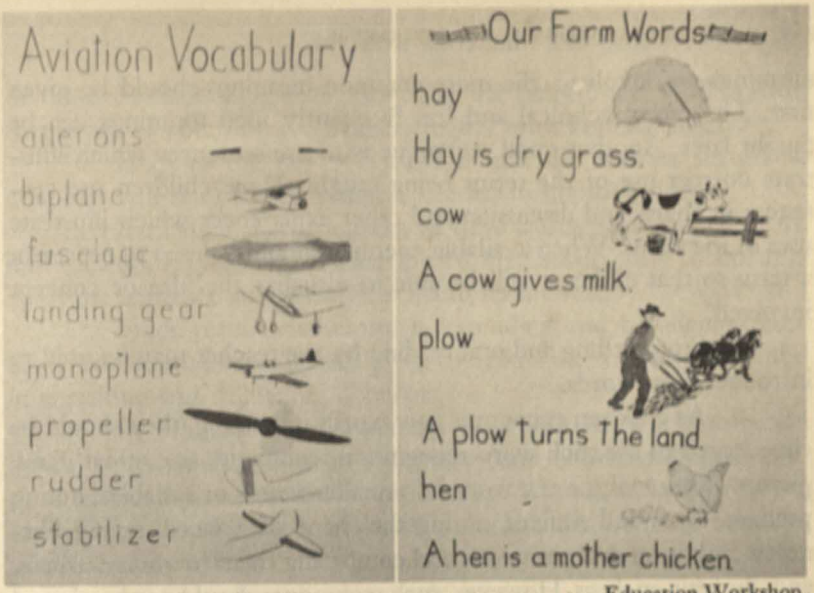
1. It is in the back of the book.
2. Names and topics are in alphabetical order.
3. Find the key word of the topic.
4. Note the pages on which the topic is located.
5. Don't give up.

Chart 2

are used, grasp the meaning of them, and use the meaning to interpret what is read. If a child's reading vocabulary is limited, he cannot identify the words. If a child has not had a rich background of experience for building meaningful concepts, he cannot grasp the meaning intended by the writer, for words have meaning only if the child can bring meaning to them. The development of rich concepts and a meaningful vocabulary are basic to the efficient use of reading in the social studies.

Children encounter a unique vocabulary in the social studies depending upon the unit or topic being studied at a given time. For example, in a study of Colonial Life they encounter such terms as *Indian broom*, *Betty lamp*, *warming pan*, *pewter*, *waistcoats*, *plantation*, *indigo*, and *treaty*. In geographic materials they meet such words as *plateau*, *peninsula*, *steppes*, *level*, *bay*, and *gulf*. They also encounter words with multiple meanings such as *run*, *set*, *range*, and *lock*, and names of strange individuals, places, and groups. While they may be able to pronounce them, in many instances they do not have the background necessary for understanding them. In addition to specific terms, children encounter concepts involving group relationships, social institutions, social functions, and such abstractions as *democracy*, *community*, *cooperation*, and *tolerance*. A specific meaning-building program is needed in connection with each unit of work in order that children may develop the concepts needed to understand the reading materials.

A variety of vocabulary building principles and procedures should be used to develop the vocabulary needed to read social studies materials. The following are important considerations:



Education Workshop,
University of California, Berkeley

How might you use charts such as these to develop vocabulary?

1. In selecting techniques to use for a given group, attention must be given to level of growth in reading, maturity in relation to concepts and skills involved, past experiences, and the related instructional program in reading.

2. Reading materials should be checked to determine new terms and concepts and shifts in word meaning that may cause difficulty for the group.

3. Concepts, developed in such related activities as field trips, demonstrations, construction, processing of materials, and use of audio-visual materials should be discussed, clarified, identified, and used.

4. Specific meaning-building experiences should be planned and used to meet special needs; for example, when new materials are introduced, questions are raised regarding strange words, or difficulties arise in interpretation resulting from poor conceptual backgrounds.

5. New terms should be related to past experiences and used in group planning, discussion, sharing, reporting, dramatic play, chart making, and evaluation, as well as in reading.

6. When explaining specific terms used in the social studies, words should be used in the explanation that are well known to children. If necessary a dictionary that has been developed for children should be checked to find synonyms which can be used. When several

meanings are involved, the more common meanings should be given first. The more technical and less frequently used meanings can be taught later. Another good technique is to use sentences which illustrate correct use of the terms being taught. Have children use sentences in charts and discussion and other experiences which illustrate uses of the terms. When available, pictures should be used to represent a term so that children will be able to visualize the idea or concept involved.

7. Story telling and oral reading by the teacher may be used to introduce new words.

8. As children encounter new words in reading, they should be encouraged to use such word recognition techniques as context clues, picture clues, analysis of a word into smaller words or syllables, noting prefixes, roots and suffixes, noting the shape of a word, seeing likenesses and differences in words and comparing them to known words, and phonetic analysis. However, such techniques should not be viewed as a substitute for meaning-building experiences.

9. Vocabulary lists, such as *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words*, may be consulted.[7] This list suggests approximate placement for teaching certain words for permanent knowledge. When needed, words that are high on the list (difficult) can be given attention by the class. Wesley and Adams [8] have made an interesting analysis of social studies terms in the first 2,000 words in this list. Other word lists are also available.[9] It must be kept in mind, however, the sentence length and complexity, difficulty of ideas in the content, and multiple meanings of words are also important factors, and that vocabulary lists do not consider them. Furthermore, there is a difference between sight vocabulary and meaning vocabulary, the vocabulary list being a meaning vocabulary. That is, it is assumed that if children recognize the words on a list, they will know them in reading material. In spite

[7] Edward L. Thorndike and Irving Lorge, *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1944.

[8] Edgar B. Wesley and Mary A. Adams, *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1952, pp. 293-306.

[9] Luella Cole, *The Teacher's Handbook of Technical Vocabulary*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1940; Edgar Dale, "A Comparison of Two Word Lists," *Educational Research Bulletin*, 10:484-489, December, 1941; E. W. Dolch, *Problems in Reading*. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Press, 1948, Chaps. X and XXI; Arthur I. Gates, *A Reading Vocabulary for Primary Grades*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935; Henry D. Rinsland, *A Basic Vocabulary of Elementary School Children*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1945; and Clarence R. Stone, *Stone's Graded Vocabulary for Primary Reading*. St. Louis, Missouri: Webster, 1941.

of these shortcomings, vocabulary lists are helpful and studies show that grasp of vocabulary correlates highly with reading ability.[10]

10. Help in the use of glossaries and dictionaries should be coupled with the planned practice needed to improve skills.

11. Individual and group lists of new words encountered in the unit of work may be made. Charts, card files, and picture dictionaries are made and used successfully in many classrooms.

12. Wide reading is helpful in extending and broadening concepts; consecutive reading on a given topic in a unit of work is helpful in enriching and deepening concepts.

13. In evaluating the outcomes of a unit of work, attention should be given to growth in vocabulary and understanding of concepts as well as to other significant learning. With specific information available on vocabulary growth, definite plans can be made for continuous improvement.

Simplifying Complex Ideas. In addition to having a unique vocabulary, the social studies deal with complex ideas and relationships. This is unavoidable because the social studies are concerned with man and his interaction with his physical and social environment. This makes it mandatory for the teacher to develop adequate backgrounds and understanding through related firsthand experiences, use of audio-visual materials, and discussion of questions that arise. The more closely the material is related to the experiences of the children, the more easily can they grasp the meanings involved.

As children encounter complex sentences in reading social studies material, attention must be given to relationships that exist between different parts of the sentence as well as to the concepts involved. In some instances this can be done through group discussion; in others it is helpful to make several sentences out of a compound or complex sentence, each containing a significant idea. Attention should also be given to the use of punctuation marks such as commas in a series, exclamation points to show surprise or danger, and so forth.

Some teachers find it helpful to provide easy-to-read, rewritten material for those children who have not developed levels of reading ability that are adequate for handling standard reading materials. Teacher-prepared materials are also helpful when material on a given topic is unavailable. Rewritten materials should be organized in a file so that children can refer to them as they attack problems in the unit

[10] See E. W. Dolch, "The Use of Vocabulary Lists in Predicting Readability and in Developing Reading Materials," *Elementary English*, 26:142-149, 177, March, 1949.

of work being studied. Many teachers find it helpful to prepare one or more rewrites related to each major problem in the unit; they may be related to food, shelter, clothing, transportation, communication, or other social functions, as well as to specific topics in a unit of work. It is helpful to add illustrative material such as pictures, charts, photographs, and post cards. A simple style of writing should be used. The best single approach is to imagine that you are writing a letter to a child in which you wish to inform him about a given topic. Simple sentences and nontechnical vocabulary should be used. The two examples below are illustrative:

The Pilot Boat [11]

The busy pilot boat is the leader for all the foreign boats which come into the San Francisco Harbor.

The pilot has his office in the pilot house on the wharf. He knows exactly what day and what hour any ship is going to arrive at the Harbor. He receives the messages by telegraph and by radio. He reads the time schedule which many ships follow.

When a foreign boat is due to arrive, the pilot captain climbs into his boat. He chugs the little boat out toward the lighthouse to meet the strange boat. On the big boat is a captain who knows how to steer and guide his ship all over the deep, wide oceans. He needs help when coming into narrow harbors.

He needs a pilot captain to climb upon his boat to help steer it safely to the dock.

He needs to know how to go safely out of the harbor when he is ready to return home.

Pedro Makes His House [12]

Pedro lives in a house made of bricks. In Mexico, these bricks are made of clay. This clay is called adobe. Pedro's father will put hay or straw with the clay. It makes adobe stick together. He then makes the adobe into bricks.

The bricks are very big. They are about twenty-four inches long. They are about twelve inches wide. They are about six inches tall. There is much adobe in Mexico. There is so much adobe that most houses in Mexico are made of adobe brick.

Adobe houses can have a roof of palm leaves. They sometimes have a roof of wood. Many times they have a roof of tile. Tile is red. Have

[11] Prepared by Ruth Sarson, second grade teacher, Summer Demonstration School, University of California, Berkeley, California.

[12] Prepared by Mrs. Jerome F. Harrington, Oakland Public Schools, California.

you ever seen a house with a tile roof? Pedro's father made his roof of wood. He used the wood he saw near the house. He made the roof flat and put adobe in the cracks. Can you tell why?

UNDERSTANDING THE ORGANIZATION. The manner of organization of reading materials in the social studies should be explored carefully as selected materials are used. For example, with children in the middle and upper grades, it is helpful to consider in group discussion the major headings, subheadings, and minor headings in a given text, giving attention to ways in which they can be used by the class, the manner in which the ideas are arranged, the reason why the material has been organized in this particular way, and the relationship of the headings to topics and problems in the unit. If clear purposes for reading are developed, children may be guided to discover that topical headings are especially helpful in locating key ideas and information related to stated purposes. Furthermore, the problem of reorganizing the material to meet various needs becomes easier if purposes are clear and meaningful to the class. Other items related to organization of materials are format, use of pictures, charts, and diagrams, chronological presentation, logical development of topics, cross references, references to maps and charts on distant pages, sequence of topics, and use of italics. These should be considered in connection with the specific materials which a given group is using, and attention should be given to their helpfulness in locating key ideas, explaining selected sections and summarizing basic data.

CRITICAL EVALUATION. Critical evaluation of the ideas secured through reading is essential.[13] Controversial issues, prejudices, biases, opinions versus facts, varied interpretations, irrelevant ideas, generalizations, inaccuracies, mood and interest of the author, usefulness of ideas, and the like should be noted and discussed thoroughly by the group. Ideas should be checked against other references and sources of data as needs arise. Misconceptions and biases of the reader should also be considered. In addition, children should be helped to detect the difference between informational and fictional material. In short, in the words of a recent text, the teacher's goal is to develop "the skill which makes the difference between thinking Americans and fact-reading sheep." [14]

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[13] For a good discussion see David H. Russell, *Children Learn to Read*. Boston: Ginn, 1949, pp. 305-326.

[14] Constance M. McCullough, Ruth M. Strang, and Arthur E. Traxler, *Problems in the Improvement of Reading*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946, p. 381.

In evaluating ideas secured through reading, several key questions may be considered by the group; the choice of questions for consideration will depend upon their appropriateness to a given selection and the maturity of the class. The following are illustrative:

Is the writer's purpose clear?
Are facts presented clearly and differentiated from opinion?
What type of proof is given?
Does the author appeal to emotion?
Are generalizations supported by ample evidence?
Do the ideas square with other sources of information?
How are figures of speech used? Analogies? Similes? Metaphors?
Are differing views presented on controversial issues?
Are cause and effect relationships clear?
Are conclusions clearly established?
Is the material pertinent to class problems?

Charts 3 and 4 illustrate ways in which two different classes handled certain phases of critical evaluation of reading materials. Such charts also can be used in situations other than reading, and thus have double value because they are related to the problem-solving process.

Critical Readers
1. Check the facts
2. Compare ideas
3. Raise questions
4. Find out about the author
5. Notice general statements
6. Look for proof
7. Check conclusions

Chart 3

Critical Thinkers
Use these steps:
1. State problems
2. Find facts
3. Filter facts
4. Organize facts
5. Base conclusions on facts
6. Act on conclusions
7. Change conclusions on basis of new facts

Chart 4

SOCIAL UNDERSTANDING THROUGH LITERATURE

Literature makes rich contributions to social learning in the elementary school. Horn [15] has stated, "Of all the subjects not tradi-

[15] Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937, p. 265.

tionally included under the social studies, none is more intimately affiliated with them than literature." Literary selections are used in the social studies to heighten interest, deepen understanding, create moods and atmosphere, portray the diversity of ways of living and thinking among people in various cultures, stimulate imagination, give colorful backgrounds, promote more complete identification with others, give a warm feeling for the problems of others, improve attitudes toward others, build appreciations for the contributions of others, provoke creativity, and give vivid impressions of ways of living being studied in various units of work. A feeling for the joys, sorrows, and problems of others can rarely be kindled through the use of factual material alone; hence, the importance of poetry, stories, biography, fiction, letters, legends, and travel literature to take children beyond facts to the spiritual and aesthetic qualities and values involved in human relationships. The development of wholesome attitudes toward others and appreciation for the problems, needs, and contributions of others make it imperative that literary selections be used in the social studies.[16]

Some specific examples of the uses of literary selections in various units of work may serve to clarify the specific contributions that can be made to the enrichment of the social studies program. The following suggestive illustrations are drawn from representative units at different levels.

In studying pets as a part of a unit on the Home, one group was thrilled by the teacher's reading of Hill and Maxwell's *Charlie and His Puppy Bingo*, and Gemmill's *Joan Wanted a Kitty;* selected poems were also enjoyed from *Sung Under the Silver Umbrella* (Association for Childhood Education).

A primary group learning about the community enjoyed Field's *General Store*, Medary's *The Store at Criss-Cross Corners*, and Chute's *Rhymes About the City;* another group studying the farm liked Chute's *Farmers* and Nast's *A Farm Story;* a group studying trains liked Tippett's poem "Trains," and Lenski's *The Little Train.*

In a study of Life in the United States several children read Gate's *Blue Willow* and expressed keenly felt sympathy for the problems of the itinerant worker's child. Others read Buffler's *Rodrigo and Rosalita*, and Lenski's *Blue Ridge Sally*, *Bayou Suzette*, and *Strawberry Girl*, and enriched their understanding of life in different sections of the country. Several were sensitized to the needs and problems of minority groups by reading Jackson's *Call Me Charley*, De Angeli's

[16] *Ibid.*

Bright April, Davis' *Americans Everyone*, Eberle's *Very Good Neighbors*, Jones' *Small Rain*, and Beim's *Two Is a Team*. These books were also helpful in showing how individuals and groups can work and play together even though differences exist.

A study of Growth of Democracy was greatly enriched for upper grade children who read D'Aulaires' *George Washington*, Daugherty's *Lincoln*, Forbes' *Johnny Tremain* and *America's Paul Revere*, Barksdale's *The First Thanksgiving;* and listened to recordings such as "Ballad for Americans," "The Lonesome Train," and "Mine Eyes Have Seen the Glory," and radio programs such as "Cavalcade of America." A greater appreciation of the contributions of famous Americans was secured by those who read D'Aulaire's *George Washington*, Daugherty's *Abraham Lincoln*, Franklin's *Autobiography*, Meadowcraft's *The Boy's Life of Edison*, Pace's *Clara Barton*, Gray's *William Penn*, and Holt's *George Washington Carver*.

The teacher, too, should read literature, to develop rich backgrounds for guiding children in the study of various places and peoples. In addition to knowing the resources available for children, the teacher should read materials for adults. Background references for the teacher should be included in the bibliography in each resource unit.

In using literary selections, attention must be given to authenticity of material, explanations of deviations from reality, comparisons between factual and fictional materials, distortions because of author's point of view, setting, and inaccuracies in content.[17] The attitude of the group should be one of delight and enjoyment. In general, when using a literary selection the teacher and children should keep the following points in mind:

1. Enjoy it, don't dissect it; analyze it only if analysis increases enjoyment.
2. Share it, don't ask questions; don't give tests on it or evaluate it as is done with factual materials.
3. Approach it to have fun, not to study it as is done in work-type materials.
4. Be aware of fiction and fantasy; don't teach them as facts.
5. Let the children discover values, moods, and meanings; don't moralize or struggle to develop certain points of real interest to yourself.

[17] For a good discussion see Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937, pp. 265-299.

6. Let children memorize their favorites, not those assigned by someone.
7. Utilize varied techniques and activities to share and enjoy literary selections in the social studies such as those in the following list:

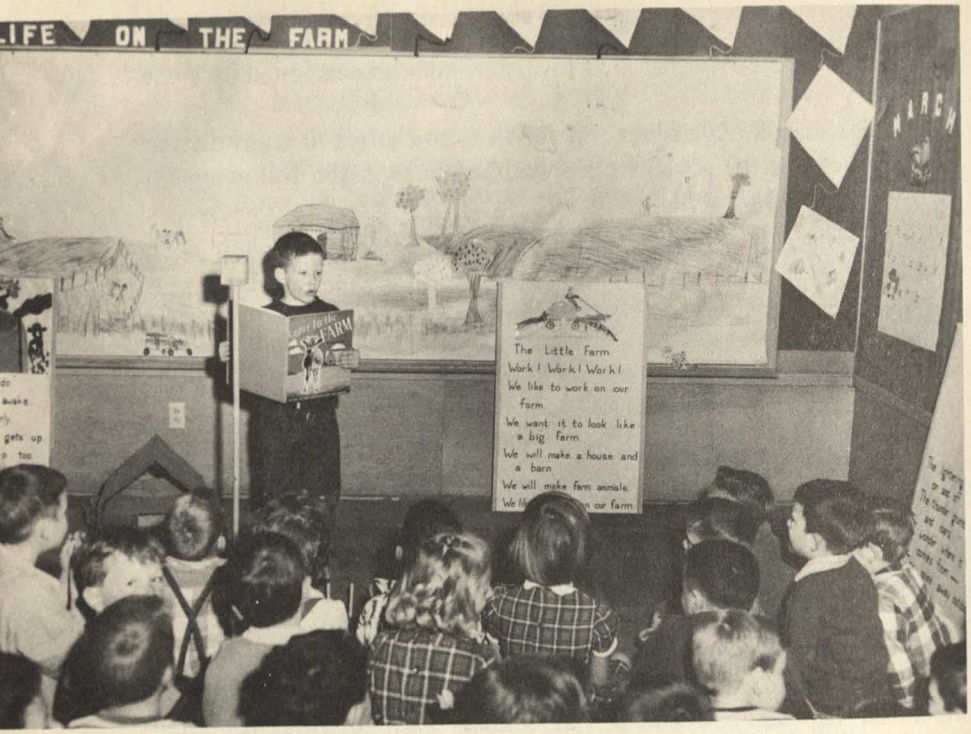
Book reports
Card files of favorite poems and stories
Choral reading
Dramatization
Film strips
Hearing selections with musical backgrounds
Independent reading
Motion pictures
Oral reading by children
Oral reading by the teacher
Programs and pageants
Puppets and marionettes
Radio and TV programs
Recordings
Sharing creative writing
Singing poems and verses set to music
Story telling

USING LIBRARY FACILITIES

The resources of modern libraries are especially helpful in the social studies. In some areas traveling libraries, or bookmobiles, are operated for the convenience of schools and communities. Many teachers find it helpful to check out a varied collection of reading materials, prints, and pictures related to the unit of work. Many librarians are eager to help in selecting materials appropriate to a given unit. In some school systems the teacher may order a kit of materials on a given unit from the central school library; in others, catalogues are provided so that specific materials may be requested as needed. A few elementary schools have their own libraries, but, in general, their facilities are inadequate for meeting the varied needs that arise in the social studies. Hence, most teachers find it necessary to supplement materials available in the school by using those available through public libraries and central school library facilities.

Room libraries are organized by many teachers as convenient places to keep references and supplementary reading materials. As different units of work are studied the reading materials should be changed. Materials from public libraries and the central school library should be drawn on freely for placement in the room library. The room library should be attractively arranged with bulletin board space and tables and chairs for individual and small group use.

Children should be given planned experiences in library utilization so that they, too, may use library resources in the social studies. An essential procedure is to take a group to the library to learn the



Alameda County

Real appreciation develops as children share favorite books and stories. In order to be sure that children find favorites, it is necessary to build up a bibliography of children's books for each unit of work that is being developed.

location of materials, how to check out materials, rules and procedures, and the use of the card catalogue. Librarians are eager to help and should be consulted prior to the visit so that detailed plans, appropriate to the maturity of the group, can be made.

Some of the first learnings that children make regarding library utilization are illustrated in Charts 5, 6, and 7.

Our Library
1. We get books.
2. We get pictures.
3. We hear stories.
4. We read magazines.

Chart 5

Checking Out Books
1. Find the book you want.
2. Take the book to the librarian to check out.
3. Return the book on time.

Chart 6

LIBRARY RULES

1. Never bend the pages.
2. Keep books dry.
3. Close books before laying them down.
4. Sign out books with the librarian.
5. Sign in books with the librarian.

Chart 7

Specific attention also must be given to skills involved in utilizing reference materials. The following resources are used in connection with many different units of work in upper grades:

1. Card catalogues
2. City directories
3. Dictionaries
4. Encyclopedias
5. School atlases
6. Government directories
7. Guides, timetables, and folders
8. Periodicals
9. *Readers' Guide*
10. Telephone directories
11. *The Junior Book of Authors*
12. *Who's Who in America*
13. *World Almanac*
14. *Statesman's Yearbook*

Attention needs to be given to skills involved in the use of each of the above. For example, children should be shown that books are classified by authors, titles, and subjects in the *Card Catalogue*. Explain that the "call number" on the upper left hand corner of the card is the key to locating books; the same number is on the back of the book. When the *Reader's Guide* is first used, explain that it is an index of magazine articles by subject and by author. The abbreviations of magazine titles, months, volume, and page should be discussed. Other abbreviations such as *il* for illustrated, *por* for portrait, and those shown in Charts 8 and 9 should be noted. Planned practice should be given

DO YOU KNOW THESE ABBREVIATIONS IN THE CARD CATALOGUE?

Ja	S	rev
Mr	O	il
Je	Ap	por
Jl	W	pseud

Chart 8

WHAT IS THE NAME OF EACH OF THE FOLLOWING MAGAZINES?

Atlan	Nat Geog Mag
Contemp	Sat Eve Post
Sci Am	U N World

Chart 9

Albany, California

What plans might you make to encourage children to use the card catalogue to look up references related to questions and problems that arise in units of work?

in using the *Reader's Guide* and the *Card Catalogue* to locate material related to units being studied.

Charts 10, 11, 12 and 13 are illustrative of specific ways in which other reference materials may be used. A basic point to keep in mind is that each one should be used functionally to answer questions, secure material for reports, and the like.

Use the *Statesman's Yearbook* to Find
1. Facts about British Commonwealth countries.
2. Facts about states in the United States.
3. Facts about other countries.
4. Area, population, leaders, products, religions, commerce, and other information about countries.

Chart 10

References on Musicians
1. *Living Musicians*
2. *Composers of Today*
3. *Composers of Yesterday*
4. Encyclopedias

Chart 11

USE THE *World Almanac* TO FIND FACTS ON

Airports	Books	Education
Countries	Radio	Weights
States	Television	Altitudes
Sports	Population	Mountains
People	Agriculture	Labor
Events	Trade	Holidays
Officials	Transportation	Courts
Rivers		Distances
Dams	Minerals	Exports

Chart 12

BIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES

1. *Who's Who in America*
2. *Who's Who* (in regions)
3. *Dictionary of American Biography*
4. *Current Biography*

Chart 13

MAKING AND USING CHARTS

Charts are an especially valuable resource for use in the social studies. Charts are needed to record and classify information that is to be used or referred to several times. Their most common use in the elementary school social studies program is to record work standards, plans, responsibilities, membership of committees, directions, creative expression, terms and concepts, information needed in construction and dramatic play, and instructions for processing of materials. They may be developed by the group, or made by the teacher to present information, introduce topics, raise questions, provide directions, and to direct attention to specific needs. The most common types are:

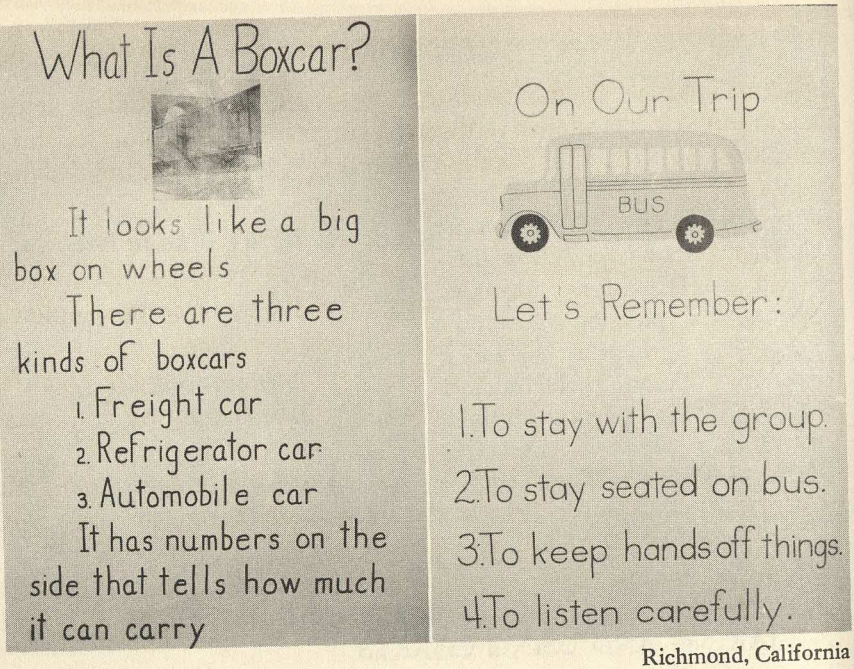
Experience charts for reading and discussion based upon field trips, experiments, constructions, and other firsthand experiences.

Group standards charts for use in work periods, discussion, dramatic play, making reports, committee work, and cooperating with others.

Sequential charts such as time-lines charts, records and logs of activities, calendar of events, sequence of activities, and records of progress.

Direction charts for use in construction, field trips, map making, processing materials, describing use of references or tools and materials, and carrying out other activities.

Creative expression charts to record songs, poems, and stories.



Richmond, California

How might you plan and make reading charts that are related to topics and experiences in a unit of work?

Vocabulary charts for listing frequently used terms and concepts related to the unit of work.

Organization charts to summarize committee organization, organization for a trip, or organization of various institutions or groups studied in units of work.

Information charts to clarify basic facts needed for various activities.

Classification charts to record such items as types of boats, dwellings, food, shelter, clothing, weapons, utensils, and arts and crafts.

The content of charts should be based on the experiences of the class and directly related to activities in the unit of work. Vocabulary and sentence patterns should be appropriate to the level of maturity of the group. The language in the chart should be childlike, and use should be made of descriptive phrases and sentences dictated by the group. Illustrations should be attractive and add to the meaningfulness of charts. Correct punctuation, capitalization, spelling, and language usage are essential.

The format and composition of charts should be similar to that of the printed page in a well-made textbook. Lettering should be legible and easy to read. Sharp contrast between lettering and paper, standard paragraph form, balanced placement of illustrations, ade-

quate spacing of words and lines, consistent use of standard letter forms, and margins similar to those on picture mats are other essential considerations. Specific attention should be given to the points that follow:

PAPER. Oak tagboard, 22½" x 28½" or 24" x 36", 80 lb. weight, is durable, has a smooth surface, takes ink well, can be secured unlined or lined ½" or ¾", and is excellent for long-term use.

White chart paper, 24" x 36", ¾" ruling, has a smooth surface, takes ink well, is fairly durable, and is good for temporary and long-term use.

Wrapping paper, 24" to 36" wide, 40 to 60 lb. weight, takes ink or crayon well, is fairly durable and smooth, can be cut into any size, and is less expensive than tagboard.

Newsprint, ruled or unruled, in sheets cut to size or in rolls (unruled), inexpensive, takes black crayon or pencil well, and is good for temporary use; it is not durable and tears easily.

CHART LINERS. Masonite, 15" x 25", with slits ¾" apart is easy to make and use. Or, ¾" strips of wood or metal can be nailed ¾" apart on a frame 18" x 25".

WRITING MATERIALS. Black crayon, China marking pencil, or soft black pencil may be used on newsprint or wrapping paper. Pencils make sharper lines than do crayons.

Speedball pens 2, 3, and 4 are fairly large decreasing in size as the number increases; Esterbrook 4, 5, and 6 are large, increasing in size as the number increases. Use black India ink with pens.

Felt-tip pens are easy to use but do not make lines as black as pens dipped in India ink.

LETTERING. Manuscript writing is preferred. In Grades I and II make small letter ¾" to 1", capitals and tall letters 1½" to 2"; if small groups are to use the chart use ½" for small letters, 1" for capitals; in Grade III and above make small letters ½", capitals 1", larger letters for special purposes; both upper and lower case should be used.

SPACING. Margins should be similar to the mat of a picture; 1½" to 3" at sides and bottom of chart place title three spaces (2½" to 3") above first line; distance between lines should be 1 to 2 ruled spaces; space between words should be equal to size of *w* in Grade 1, *o* in Grades II and up; sentences over one line should be divided by phrases; use regular paragraph form with the first line indented.

CORRECT USAGE. Correct sentence structure, spelling, usage, punctuation, and capitalization are essential.

ILLUSTRATIONS. Illustrations add to interest, meaningfulness, and attractiveness of charts; they may be made by children or the teacher; or magazine pictures and photographs may be used.

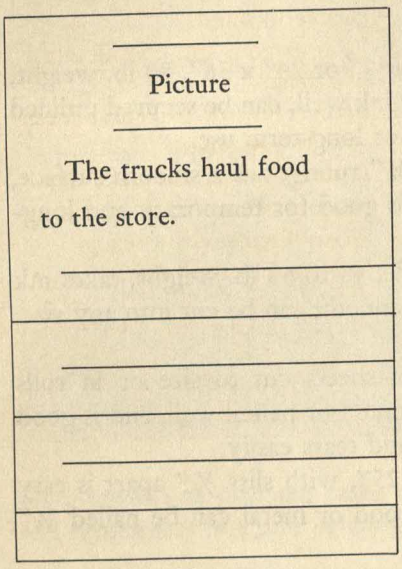


Chart 14

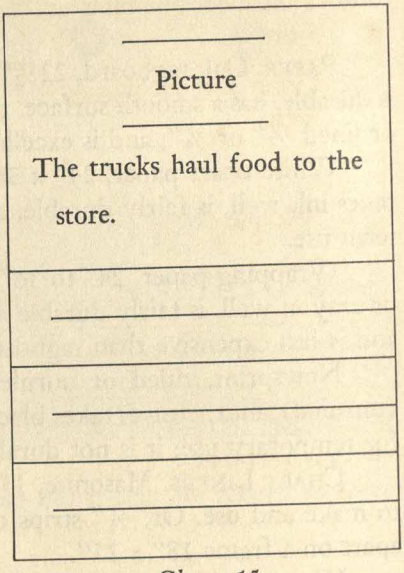


Chart 15

Charts 14 and 15 illustrate format. Chart 14 is properly indented; Chart 15 has the hanging paragraph, which is not so desirable in the primary grades.

The following charts are illustrative of types used successfully by elementary teachers. Charts 16, 17, 18, and 19 show differences at various stages of development even though the content is similar.

TELLING STORIES

1. Look at the class.
2. Speak so all can hear.
3. Have a good start.
4. Have a good ending.

GRADE II
Chart 16

TELLING STORIES

1. Have a plan for your story.
2. Relate your story to previous discussions.
3. Speak clearly and directly to the audience.
4. Make the characters seem real.
5. Have a good climax and then stop quickly.

GRADE VI
Chart 17

DISCUSSION

1. Talk about one thing at a time.
2. Listen without making noise.
3. Tell something new.
4. Ask questions.
5. Take turns.

GRADE III
Chart 18

DISCUSSION

1. Keep the purpose and topic clearly in mind.
2. Be courteous and considerate of others.
3. Be careful not to repeat ideas already presented.
4. Raise questions and make suggestions related to the topic.
5. Share discussion by being brief and to the point.

GRADE VI
Chart 19

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Which of the types of reading materials do you believe to be most useful in a unit you are planning?

2. Secure a unit of work and see ways in which multiple textbooks are suggested for use in answering questions and solving problems. (Note the units in the Appendix.)

3. Secure a textbook for children from the library and analyze it in terms of the criteria presented in this chapter. Notice strengths and weaknesses.

4. Go to a library and become acquainted with the periodicals, books and bulletins listed on pp. 319-320 which review children's textbooks. List several books which are related to a unit you plan to teach. Review them yourself and note specific ways to use them.

5. Observe a group of children reading social studies material. Note techniques used by the teacher to develop readiness, set purposes, and improve reading skills. Which of those skills mentioned in this section are being put to use? Note ways in which you can utilize and improve reading skills in a unit you are planning.

6. Prepare a rewrite (see page 330) of some material related to a problem or question in a unit you are planning. Write it on the level of the children with whom you are (or will be) working. If possible, try it out to note ways in which it may be improved. Can you find a picture or sketch to illustrate it?

7. Make a list of poems, stories, or biographies that are related to a unit you plan to teach. Note different ways in which they can be shared and enjoyed by the group.

8. Which of the library skills mentioned in this section need more attention in the elementary school? Which skills are appropriate for use at the level you are teaching or plan to teach?

9. Plan and make a chart that can be used in a unit of your choice. Be sure it is related to a significant need or purpose. Can some of the charts presented in this and other sections be adapted to meet your needs?

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13

CONSTRUCTION AND PROCESSING OF MATERIALS

Two important types of firsthand experience are considered in this chapter. The first section deals with the construction of objects by children themselves as an integral part of the on-going experiences in a unit of work. The second section suggests processes that children can carry out to develop an understanding of techniques and activities involved in meeting needs for food, shelter, and clothing. Values, limitations, group processes, and principles involved in effective utilization are discussed.

CONSTRUCTION

Construction as used in the social studies may be defined as the use of tools and materials to make authentic objects needed to promote growth of social concepts and understanding of social processes. Construction involves the development of purposes, group planning, selection of materials, appropriate use of tools, manipulative skills, group evaluation, and planning for use in related social studies activities. Examples include the making and using of airplanes, trucks, boats, looms, furniture, weapons, utensils, and various models. The value of construction lies in its contribution to social learning, not in the products that are made. Lasting values can be achieved only if construction serves significant purposes, involves careful planning, is authentic, and is used to stimulate learning in the unit of work.[1]

The term construction is not used in this section to denote busywork with scissors and paste in which children make hatchets, tepees,

[1] For illustrative examples and a good point of view see Natalie White, "Newer Practices Involving Industrial Arts," *Newer Instructional Practices of Promise*. Twelfth Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1939, pp. 90-115.

animals, polar bears, vegetables, boats, cities, and the like from paper. Nor is the term used to mean the making of igloos, villages, castles, and ponds out of glass and blue paper on sand tables. Horn has commented on the value of such activities as follows:

> Such enterprises are *prima facie* evidence of slovenly thought. Teachers sometimes defend or even approve them, however, on the ground that they are "real to the child" or "the child's very own," thus manifesting an indisposition to seek the truth, as well as a flagrant misconception of the healthy and vigorous use of the imagination. Such experiences not only fail to contribute to valid understanding but are an actual detriment, since they give the student concrete ideas of the way things are *not* and discourage any effort to discover the truth.[2]

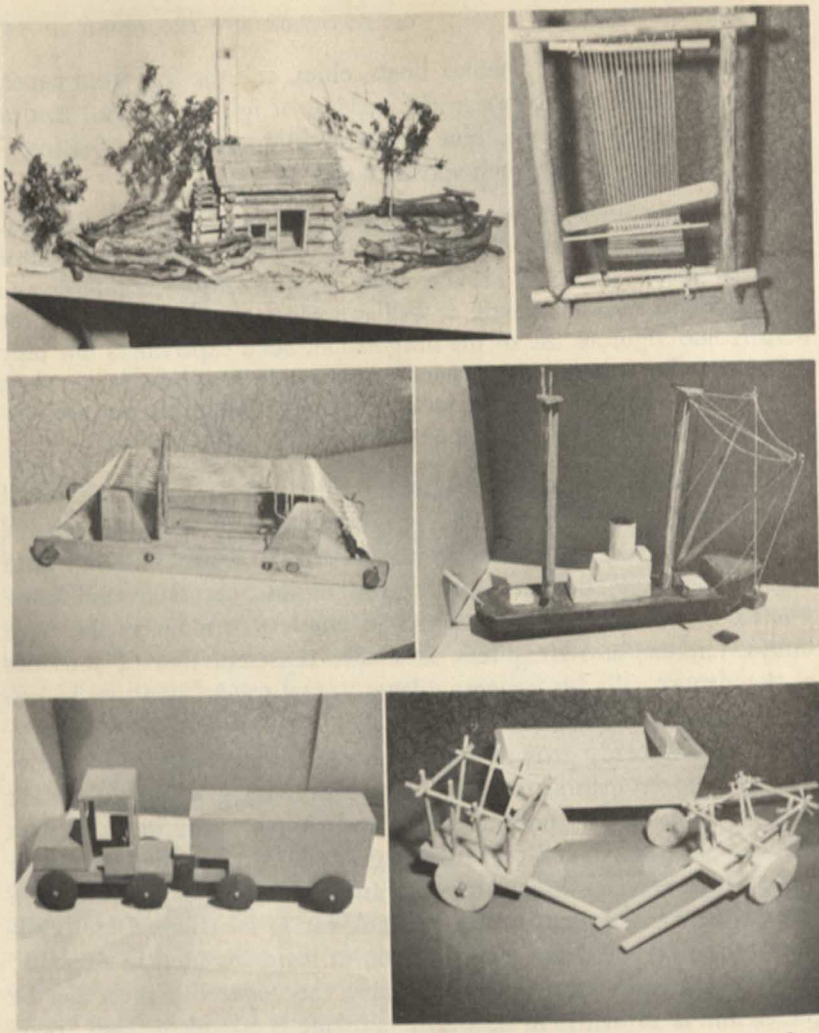
Construction is closely related to dramatic play in the social studies program. Playing in the playhouse creates needs for chairs, tables, cupboards, and dishes. In play related to trains, children need engines, tank cars, flat cars, a depot, roundhouse, turntable, and semaphores. A boat and harbor unit is incomplete without liners, tugs, buoys, tankers, and freighters. Dramatic representation of activities at the airport calls for hangars, planes, signal tower, wind sock, and gas trucks.

There is steady growth in precision and authenticity in construction as children gain in maturity. In the primary grades children are satisfied with blocks, boxes, boards, and simply made items. A box may be used as a truck to haul things; two boards nailed crosswise serve as an airplane; blocks may be arranged to serve as a corral; a can fastened to a board is used as a tank car or oil truck. Older children require more detail and precision in materials used in dramatic play. The freight car has sliding doors; the covered wagon can be pulled and is authentic in detail; the airplane is complete from "prop to tail assembly"; and the airport is an authentic replica of one that has been visited.

VALUES OF CONSTRUCTION. Construction gives purpose and drive to learning.[3] Children are eager to make things, to use tools and materials, and to create objects that they can use in individual and group activities. A child may be highly motivated to read, discuss, and secure information needed to construct things to put to immediate use; it

[2] Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*, Part XV, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937, pp. 420-421.

[3] Several ideas in this section are adapted from *Workshop In Elementary Education*, a syllabus prepared by Bernard Lonsdale, Summer Session, 1947, University of California, Berkeley.



Education Workshop,
University of California, Berkeley

How might the construction and use of objects such as these be used to enrich learning in a unit you are planning?

is quite another situation when he is asked to read about something without purposes that are significant to him.

Construction for group needs provides opportunities for cooperative planning and evaluation, sharing of tools and materials, acceptance and discharge of responsibility, self-direction, and proper care of equipment. The group must consider the objects that are needed in a given unit, who shall make them, and difficulties which arise during

Alameda County

A job like this calls for real teamwork and each worker must carry through on his responsibility. What kind of planning is prerequisite to this type of activity? How would you plan it as an integral part of a unit of work?

construction. Each child has an opportunity to contribute in one or more ways to important group purposes. Such skills as using suggestions, helping others, and caring for materials are embodied in a setting of commonly shared needs and purposes.

Construction is related to the child's need for sharing and cooperating with others. It is emotionally satisfying to make things, and to use them for purposes of immediate group significance. A child who makes a chair for the playhouse gets personal satisfaction both from making it and from contributing to group needs. He can see immediately how his contribution *really* helps group activities. As he uses objects made by other children, shares them with others, discusses them and their use, and makes plans for additional objects, he begins to understand simple relationships of cooperative living.

Construction provides opportunities to improve problem-solving ability. Concrete problems arise such as: "Why won't my truck wheels

turn?" "How can I fix the doors on the box cars?" "Where can we find out how the lookouts were made at Boonesboro?" "How was water carried on covered wagons?" and "Where should the control tower be located on our airport?" Problems are defined, group planning and sharing of ideas are used, sources of information are considered, information is secured, tentative solutions are proposed, tried, and evaluated, and conclusions are reached. Whether the ideas work or not may be actually tested by seeing if the object works, if it is usable in dramatic play and other situations, and if it is like those seen in pictures, read about, or discussed in class. The concreteness of construction gives a realistic approach to problem solving that is meaningful to children.

Construction enables children to produce and use objects representative of those being studied. For example, in a study of life in Mexico, authentic replicas may be made of simple looms, pottery, utensils, and rugs. Colonial living becomes more meaningful as children make rag rugs, candles, wooden spoons, and furniture. Understanding of the development of communication is increased as children make and use drums, whistles, horns, telegraph keys, and simple radio sets.

Meanings may be clarified, enriched, and deepened through construction. The making and using of an airport, a covered wagon, or a loom provides concepts and understandings that are lasting and rich in meaning. Ideas and information secured through discussion, reading, excursions, pictures, and other sources are tried out and evaluated in terms of their practicality and usefulness. The ability to use information is developed, as well as the ability to secure information.

Construction provides opportunities and motivation for the development of language and number skills. Vocabulary is extended as children use tools and new materials, and make plans to construct objects needed in various units of work. As needs for information arise, attention may be given to the use of indexes, tables of contents, reading for specific ideas, getting ideas in order, and outlining. Planning and evaluation periods foster the growth of discussion ability, correct use of new terms, and precision in questioning, giving directions, and making suggestions. Many needs arise for measuring, counting, and computing. Quantitative concerns and problems become more meaningful and important to the group. Other skills used in planning, doing, and evaluating construction include following directions, listening, interviewing, examining pictures and objects, sharing, and selecting and evaluating sources of information. By using construc-

tion, the teacher is able to improve many skills through their use in problems that are significant to the group.

Criteria. Educationally sound guidelines must be used to select activities involving construction if the foregoing values are to be achieved. The following criteria are helpful in appraising the desirability of suggested activities as plans are being made.

1. Does this activity meet a need that is significant to the group?
2. Will it contribute rich meanings and increase insight into social processes?
3. Is it practical in terms of available time, tools, and materials?
4. Is it more effective than other experiences that can be provided?
5. Will it help to develop accurate concepts?
6. Does it bear a direct relationship to other experiences in the unit?
7. Do children have readiness for it in terms of backgrounds, and skills in construction?
8. Will it promote critical thinking, cooperative planning, and group problem-solving skills?

Illustrative Uses of Construction. The following examples of objects that children may construct are taken from units of work frequently taught in the elementary schools. As you read them, note specific activities that you may carry out in a unit for a given group. The following list is not complete but does give examples of construction that have been used successfully by outstanding teachers.

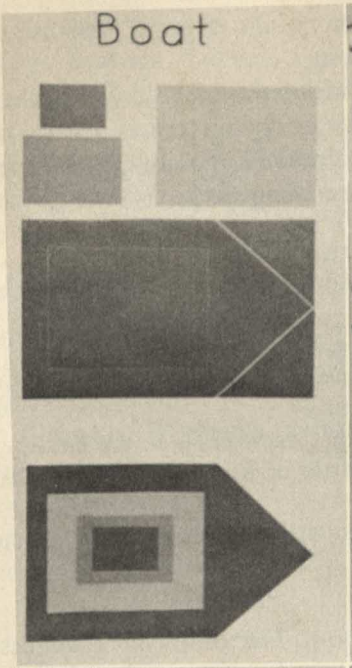
1. *The Home.* Playhouse furnishings, including chairs, tables, cupboards, flower boxes, rugs, curtains, wallpaper, borders, and dishes.

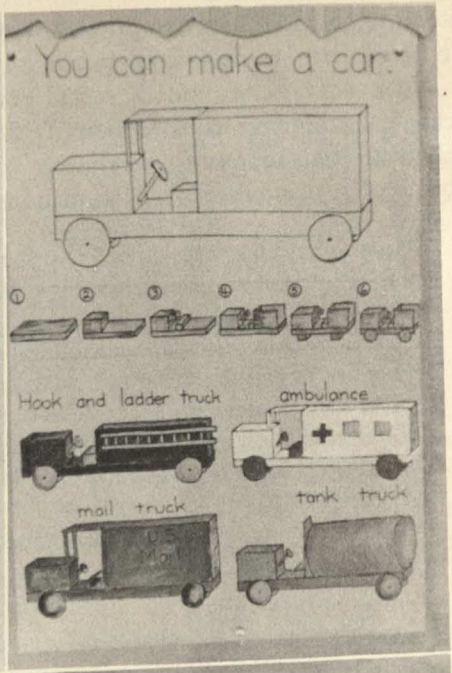
2. *Community Life.* Simply made houses, stores, schools, churches, and other community buildings; various types of trucks, such as oil, lumber, pick-up, milk, mail, and delivery; crates, boxes, bags, fruits and vegetables, hand trucks, and sheds for use in the market.

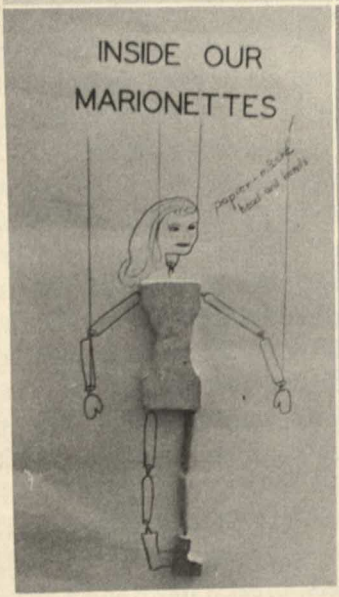
3. *The Farm.* Farmhouse, barn, fences, chicken coops, pens, corrals, silo, trucks; milking and feed barns, nursery for the calves, bottling plant, stanchions, feeding troughs, grain sacks, and milk trucks for a dairy farm.

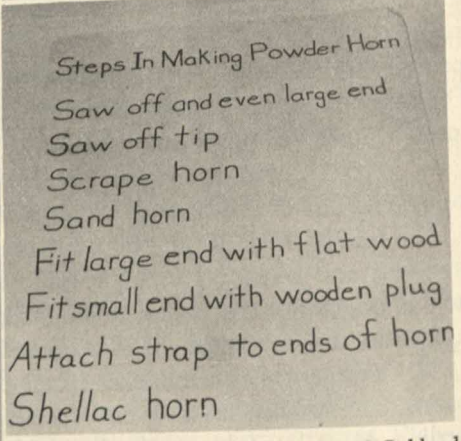
4. *Boats.* Different types of boats, such as oil tanker, tug, liner, freighter, lumber boat, fire boat, speed boat, row boat, fishing boat, pilot boat; items for a harbor, such as piers, breakwater, buoys, dry-dock, and drawbridge.

5. *Trains.* Classification yard on the floor; various types of cars, such as freight cars, refrigerator, flatcar, boxcar, gondola, hopper, stock, poultry, tank car; engines of various types, such as passenger,



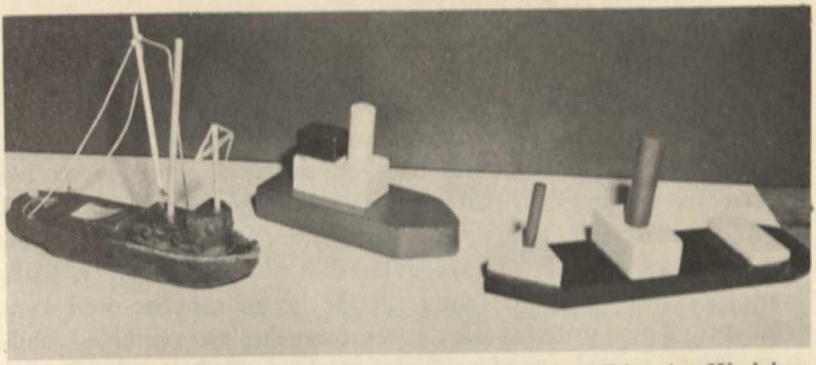






Burbank and Oakland

These charts were designed to show or tell how various objects could be constructed.



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freight, switch; caboose; other items to use in the unit, such as truck farm, wholesale market, stockyard, lumber yard, animals to haul, fruit to haul, sacks for produce, trucks, tractors, dollies, and land trucks to load and unload freight; signals and switches; sand towers and water towers; roundhouse and turntable.

6. *Mexico.* Home with simple furnishings; miniature adobe huts; pottery utensils; baskets of reed and raffia; candles for the home; shrines; Mexican market; dioramas of various scenes; gourd utensils such as dippers and bowls; clothes, such as sombreros to use in dramatic play; furniture, such as a rope bed, table, bench.

7. *Colonial Life.* Colonial kitchen, fireplace, bed, table, rag rugs, chair, benches, cupboard, lamps, candles; spoons, ladles, brooms; horn books, powder horns, bullet pouches, rifles; tape and box looms.

8. *Aviation.* Model planes, gliders, wind sock, control tower, hangars, maintenance shops, runways, model airport.

Tools and Materials. Only simple tools are used in construction in the social studies. Saws, C-clamps, hammers, T-squares, brace and bit, mallet, chisels, and a hand drill are adequate for most activities. Proper use of tools, safety measures, and care of tools are taught systematically so that accidents and injuries can be avoided. Portable tool racks make it possible for many groups to use the same tools and also provide a good storage place for tools and materials.

Materials for construction may be secured in the community. Boxes made of soft pine wood are especially useful. Orange crates and apple boxes can be used for buildings such as houses, barns, stores, hangars, and depots. Boards from wooden boxes make excellent scrap lumber which can be used to make boats, trucks, looms, airplanes, and the like. Doweling ranging in size from a quarter inch to 1″ can be used to make masts, steering shafts on trucks, derricks, funnels, smoke-

stacks, and any other item that is round and of appropriate size. Wooden button molds ranging in size from 1″ to 2½″ in diameter should be used for wheels. Awning pole, 2½″ in diameter, is excellent for making tank cars, tanks for milk and oil trucks, and locomotive boilers. Tin roofing caps make excellent headlights or hub caps on trucks. Tops of cans, scraps of tin, bottle tops, spools, screws, screw-eyes for hooking railroad cars and trailer-trucks, sandpaper, nails, brads, brushes, and paints round out the list of supplies used most frequently. Once materials such as the foregoing are assembled, children under the guidance of a creative teacher will think of innumerable objects to construct; real ingenuity will be shown in using different combinations of materials.

In some school systems it is possible for teachers to order lumber according to the size that is desired. White pine is preferable to other types because it is soft, light, and easy for children to work. Lumber cut in from 3′ to 5′ in length is easy for children to handle and can be stored without difficulty. Listed below are the net sizes (after milling) which are used frequently to construct objects in the elementary school:

NET SIZES OF LUMBER FOR CONSTRUCTION PURPOSES [4]

Net Size (Thickness x Width)	*Possible Uses*
¼″ x ¼″	Fences; belt looms; finishing on various objects (usually, ¼″ x ½″ will substitute for this size, however).
¼″ x ½″	Propellers on planes; fences; stake trucks; mud brick molds; stalls; trains; furniture; heddles on looms.
¼″ x 2″	Furniture; tail pieces and rudders on planes.
¼″ x 3″	Airplane wings, rudders and stabilizers; furniture; sides of trucks.
¼″ x 4″	Cab of trucks and trains; boxcars; covered wagons; furniture.
¼″ x 6″ or ¼″ 3″ plywood	Roofs (of houses, barns, hangars, stores).

[4] Adapted from a report prepared by Anne Merrill, Elementary Supervisor, University of California, Berkeley.

Net Size (Thickness x Width)	*Possible Uses*
½" x ½"	Axles on airplanes; fence posts; furniture; stanchions.
½" x 1"	Bridges on boats; trains; furniture.
½" x 2"	Furniture; boats; braces for box loom.
½" x 3½"	Base for trucks and trains; decks and boats; furniture.
¾" x ¾"	Axles for trucks, trains, covered wagons, hay wagons, tractors; fence posts; furniture.
¾" x 1½"	Cabin on boats; furniture; wooden spoons.
¾" x 2½"	Cabin on boats; wooden spoons.
¾" x 3½"	Base for trucks and trains; decks of boats, furniture.
¾" x 4"	Base for trucks, and trains.
1¼" x 2½"	Base for boats (fishing, tug, pilot, fire boat); motors for trucks; wooden trenchers; fuselage of airplanes.
1¼" x 4¼"	Base for boats (liner, tanker, freighter, ferry barge); wooden trenchers.

Guiding Construction. The guidance of construction is similar in many respects to the guidance of dramatic play, use of study trips, or the guidance of other activities in the social studies. A sequence of group discussion to clarify needs, group planning to consider individual and group responsibilities and procedures, observation by the teacher during the activity, and group evaluation to clarify problems and to improve procedures are essential to effective guidance. Democratic group processes and problem-solving techniques should be used.

The use of construction is most effective when it is related to the sequence of experiences in the unit of work. Just to make things for their own sake contributes little to social learning, but to make things when they are needed for real purposes adds to the richness of learning. The following example illustrates this principle.

During dramatic play in a unit on The Community, the teacher noticed that too many children were congregating around two stores in the community layout that had been arranged in one section of

the classroom. Several children bumped into each other because of the need for more space and more buildings. During group evaluation that followed dramatic play, this point was discussed and a decision was made to construct other buildings and to rearrange the floor layout. After the problems involved were clarified through group planning, the following activities were undertaken:

1. Various arrangements were tried out with blocks and boxes to determine sizes appropriate to available space.
2. It was decided to use boxes for the construction of the buildings.
3. A list was made of needed tools and other materials.
4. Standards for behavior during construction were established.
5. Groups were organized to carry out construction.
6. The construction of buildings was done purposefully and effectively.
7. The buildings were used in dramatic play.

Planning is a basic element in guidance of constructive activities. Attention must be given to what each child is to do, necessary tools, materials, use of space, and group standards to be used during the activity. Pictures and models should be used to answer questions and clarify problems. The following stenographic report shows how one group proceeded to make plans for working on objects needed in a study of freight trains. The children had begun construction three days before the report was made and were engaged in the completion of various types of cars to be used in a classification yard.

Teacher: Yesterday we made real progress on our cars. During evaluation several of you showed your work and raised questions about the next thing to be done. Who is ready to discuss plans for his car today?

Bill: Here's my boxcar. I'm ready to put wheels on it.

Peter: How are you going to put 'em on?

Bill: I think I'll have to nail a crosspiece under the car.

Teacher: See this picture? How are these fastened on?

Peter: Looks like the trucks are put on all at once.

Teacher: What do you mean by trucks?

Peter: The set of wheels.

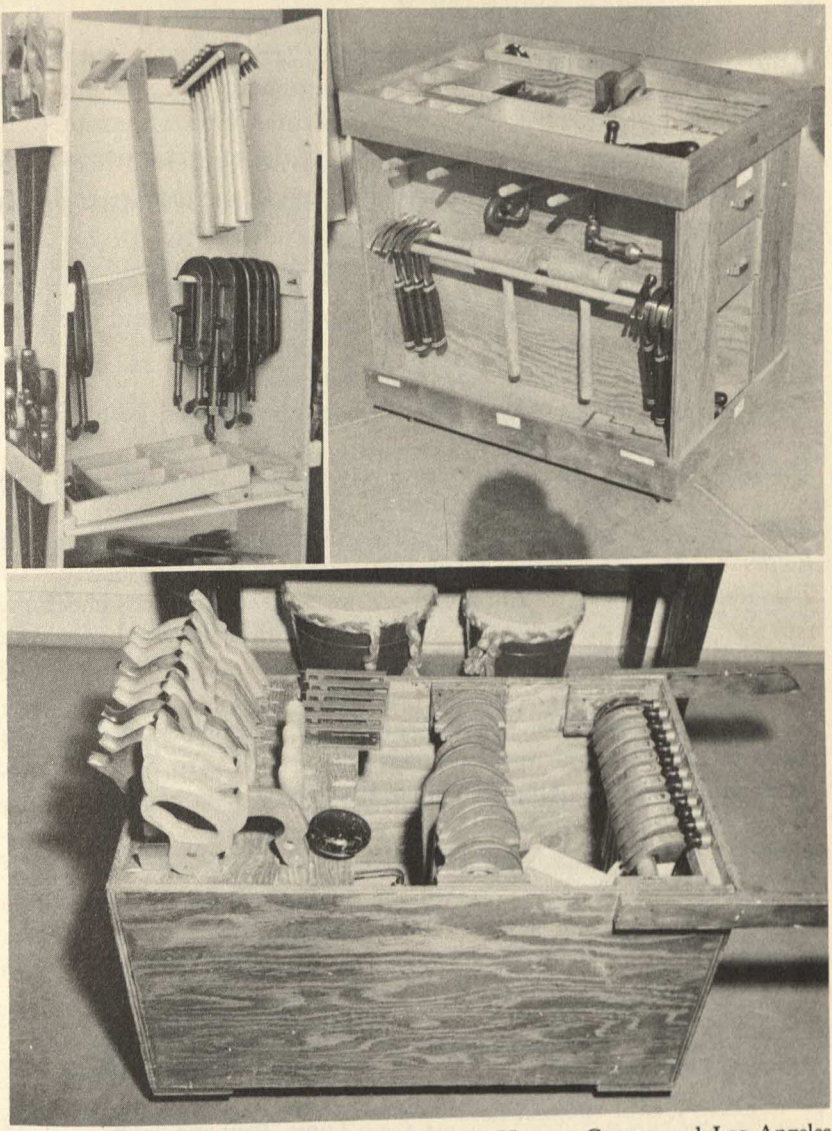
Teacher: Do you have your trucks ready?

Bill: No.

Peter: I'll help you get them ready, Bill.

Bill: I'm not sure about the parts I need.

Walter: I can help you with the parts. I've practically finished my trucks. You need two flat pieces to put the wheels on.



Ventura County and Los Angeles

Tool racks such as these facilitate construction. Note that each one is designed so that children can help themselves.

Teacher: This model shows how to put the trucks together. With Walter and Peter helping you, I'm sure you'll have no trouble. Who else needs help on his car?

Mary: I'm making a flat car. I need help on how to fix the couplers.

Ben: Here's the way I fixed my couplers. See?

Teacher: Yours seem to be very well done. Do you see how to do them?

Mary: How do you fasten them onto the cars?
Ben: Look, see under here?

Other children raised similar questions and received help from the group. Just before they proceeded to work, the teacher reviewed the safety rules as follows:

Teacher: Now, since we are all ready for work, let's check our rules to see if we know exactly what to do. Who will read our chart today?
Betty: I'll read it. (*Betty reads Chart 1.*)
Teacher: Does anyone have other suggestions we should keep in mind during work period?
Sadie: We must remember to leave room around sawhorses. Yesterday we got crowded.
Bill: I ruined a board by not using a clamp and I almost cut myself.
Ralph: I tripped over a C-clamp that wasn't under a sawhorse.
Teacher: I think you're clear on all our work standards. Let's check our jobs now. Notice the chart on the bulletin board. (A child reads Chart 2 to the group.)

During construction the teacher should give help as needed, and observe carefully to determine needs and problems to be considered in group evaluation. Attention should be given to acceptance of re-

Work Rules
1. Use tools safely.
2. Keep tools under the sawhorses.
3. Use clamps to hold boards.
4. Leave lots of room around the sawhorses.
5. Stop the minute the signal is given.

Chart 1

Work Responsibilities
1. Sawhorses: Paul, Bob, Mary, Hilda
2. Clean-up: Brooms—Peter, Joan, Marian Dustpans—Bob, Randolph, Jane Tools—Paul and John Wood—Dick and William
3. Each one should put his work away.

Chart 2

sponsibility, cooperation, use of tools and materials, adherence to group standards, individual problems, standards of safety, and work habits. Many teachers find it helpful to take notes to use in group

evaluation. The following summary shows how the teacher in the foregoing example participated in the work period.

During construction the teacher observed carefully and moved about the room giving help as problems arose.

1. One child was shown how to use a saw correctly.
2. A girl was given assistance in measuring wood for the sides of a car.
3. Two children were reminded to use C-clamps to hold their boards.
4. A boy was commended for helping another child by holding the end of a board so that it could be sawed easily.
5. In two instances it was necessary to remind three children of the group standards.
6. A boy who failed to adhere to group standards was asked to put his materials away and to do other work at his seat.
7. Three children were moved from one part of the room to another so that there would be more work space.
8. Other problems were handled in a similar manner.

The following notes were made by the teacher to use during group evaluation:

1. More attention must be given to the arrangement of work space.
2. Better use of work standards today, although Paul and Betty forgot to put tools under the sawhorse when not in use.
3. Peter and Harry had difficulty in measuring pieces of wood.
4. Mary, Paul, and Harriet need help on using tools.
5. Many examples of cooperation and giving help to others should be commended—Mary, Bill, Ben, John, David, Betty, Harriet, Peter, Maria, Susan.
6. Clean-up time was better today, but attention must still be given to stopping work when the signal is given.

Group evaluation of construction is based upon the needs and problems that arise during the work period. Each child should have an opportunity to raise questions and to contribute to group discussion. The teacher should guide the discussion so that major needs are considered. Continuing the foregoing example, the following stenographic report illustrates this aspect of the teacher's role in guiding construction.

Teacher: The work period seemed to be better today. Several of you helped others—Mary, Bill, Ben, John, David, Betty, Harriet, Peter, Maria, Susan. I am wondering if each of you had plenty of room.

Bill: I did. I stayed over there.

Los Angeles

What responsibilities can children learn as a part of clean-up time?

Harriet: We were a little crowded. Too many of us crowded around the tool carrier.

Peter: Some forgot to go to their places.

Teacher: How many can remember your spaces tomorrow? (*Many hands are raised.*) Let's consider our use of tools for a moment. Where's a safe place for us to keep the tools after they have been used?

Walter: Right under the sawhorse so nobody will trip over them.

Teacher: What is a safe way to hold our boards?

Hilda: With a clamp on the saw bench.

Ben: And if it's a big board, have someone help hold it.

Teacher: We're beginning to learn how to use tools very well. Now, are there any suggestions on clean-up time?

William: Stop when the bell rings.

Mary: Don't get any more tools or wood.

William: Carry our jobs out right away.

Teacher: Let's check our chart and see how well each of us carried out his responsibilities. (*At this point attention is given to assigned responsibilities as listed on the chart.*)
Teacher: Jean, may we see your hopper car?
Sadie: She's almost through. Isn't it a good one!
Jean: Thank you, Sadie. I hope to finish tomorrow.
Teacher: Yes, tomorrow we will make plans for painting. How are the others coming? Horace, how did the turntable work?
Horace: Much better; the washers really helped it turn.
Teacher: Were you able to handle any cars on it?
Horace: No, we just got finished before the clean-up bell. Maybe we can use it tomorrow.
Maria: Yes, my engine is about ready and I would like to try it out on the turntable.
Walter: We'd better figure out a place for it first.
Teacher: That's a good point. Tomorrow in our planning time we will give attention to that.

Other problems that were raised during discussion, in addition to those in the teacher's notes, were how to put the trucks on so they would stay, how to fix couplings, what could be hauled in some of the cars (a new lead to needed items that can be made by the group), and where to get certain types of materials.

The foregoing examples serve to emphasize the importance of careful planning on the part of the teacher. Specific attention must be given to many factors in planning, guiding, and evaluating construction. The following checklist summarizes basic considerations that should be kept in mind.

Checklist for Planning, Observing, and Evaluating Construction

Teacher Pre-planning

1. What needs for construction have developed in this unit?
2. Are working space and storage facilities adequate?
3. Are tools and materials in easily accessible places and arranged to avoid congestion and to promote effective utilization?
4. Are illustrative models and pictures available for use in clarifying concepts and answering questions?
5. What group standards are needed to guide the use of tools, materials, and space?
6. What activities are available for those who will not be involved in construction?

Group Planning

1. Are purposes clarified so that each child knows what to do?
2. Are plans made regarding use of space?
3. Is help given on individual problems and needs?
4. Is attention given to needed materials and where to secure them?
5. Are questions answered regarding the correct use of tools?
6. Has a signal been agreed upon to stop work?
7. Are responsibilities discussed and assigned regarding the clean-up period?
8. Is each child participating in group planning?

During Construction

1. Is each child proceeding with his work?
2. Are tools being used safely and correctly?
3. Are materials being used wisely?
4. Is there evidence of such democratic behavior as cooperation, sharing, creativeness, and discharge of responsibilities?
5. Do informal conversations and comments of the children show that related concepts are being used accurately?
6. Is initiative shown in raising questions, giving and asking for assistance, and helping others?
7. Are effective work habits being used?
8. Is the teacher moving about and giving assistance?
9. Is the teacher making notes for use in evaluation?
10. Do the children stop promptly when the signal is given for clean-up time?
11. Is the clean-up period handled efficiently?

Group Evaluation

1. Does each child have an opportunity to participate?
2. Is evaluation concerned with the children's purposes and problems?
3. Are teacher-noted needs injected at appropriate points and related to children's comments and questions?
4. Is help given on individual problems?
5. Are needs established as to next steps, needed information, and related number and communication skills?
6. Are sources of needed information considered?
7. Is commendation given when instances of democratic behavior are noted?
8. Is consideration given to authenticity in construction, and to deviations from authenticity in construction?
9. Are individual and group accomplishments commended?

10. Are charts or other records made of needs for materials, tools, or group standards?

PROCESSING MATERIALS

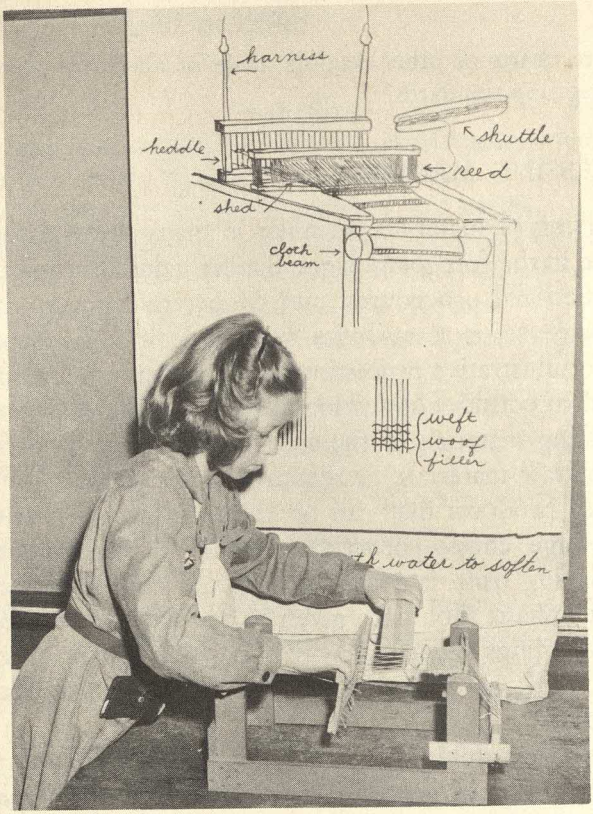
Processing of materials is similar in many ways to construction as described in the foregoing pages. Similar values, techniques of planning, instructional procedures, and cooperative group skills are involved. However, it seems wise to include in this chapter a brief discussion of illustrative processing activities that are used in the social studies, and to consider key principles involved in their use.[5]

Processing materials in the social studies may be defined as the changing of raw materials, or semiprocessed materials (yarn, for example), into products that can be used. Typical examples include: making cottage cheese, processing wool and flax, dyeing fabrics, weaving, drying fruit, and making soap. As children engage in such processes, emphasis should be given to the development of concepts and understandings regarding ways in which people meet, or have met, their needs in simple ways without benefit of technological developments.

In early times children had many firsthand experiences with processes in their everyday life in home and community. Typical experiences were planting wheat, harvesting it, grinding it into flour, and making bread; shearing sheep, and washing, carding, spinning, and weaving wool; catching, cleaning, and salting fish; processing of meat; felling and sawing trees, and using the lumber for buildings; cleaning and tanning hides to make shoes and clothing; collecting berries and dyeing clothes; using tallow to make candles; seeing the blacksmith as he forged implements from iron; and watching flour being ground at the mill. Today, the child sees finished products in the store and has limited opportunity to learn about the processes involved in making them.

Through the social studies, opportunities may be provided for engaging in processes related to various units of work. Such experiences should be realistic, authentic, and involve maximum participation on the part of children. They should be related to such other experiences in the unit as dramatic play, rhythms, construction, and painting, and should not be "tacked on" as a bit of isolated craft work. Resource visitors, excursions, related films, and reading may be utilized to give

[5] For an excellent discussion see Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937, pp. 420-440; and Natalie White, *op. cit.*



Los Angeles

What understandings and appreciations might be developed through experiences such as this?

the informational backgrounds needed to carry them out. Concepts and understandings involved in a given process should be clarified and developed through group planning, research, selection of materials, and evaluation.

Outlined below are a few illustrative examples of processes that have been used successfully in units carried out at various grade levels. Additional suggestions may be found in the references at the end of this chapter.

The Home. Making popcorn, applesauce, corn starch pudding, decorations, and clay dishes.

The Dairy Farm. Churning butter and making cottage cheese.

Mexico. Drying corn and peppers, grinding corn with a metate, making candles, carding and spinning wool, making pottery, weaving, preparing and using natural dyes, cooking Mexican foods, making adobe bricks, making sombreros, serapes, and rebosos.

China. Cooking rice, Chinese cabbage, and bean curd, making tea, raising silkworms, reeling silk from cocoons, making paper, ink, and block prints.

Colonial and Pioneer Life. Weaving and quilting; dipping and molding candles; tanning hides; making soap; rippling, retting, curing, breaking, scutching, heckling, and spinning flax; carding and spinning wool; knitting; making a quilt; making dyes; drying apples; making salt; making brooms and brushes; making clothing.

Communication. Making and using ink, paper, parchment, clay tablets, papyrus, and simple books.

In general the guidelines suggested for use in construction can also be used. In carrying our processes such as those noted above, however, the teacher should give special attention to:

1. Development of a real need for undertaking the activity.
2. Concepts and social understandings that may be developed to increase insight into ways in which needs for food, shelter, and clothing are met.
3. Adequacy of children's backgrounds for using the process.
4. Development of ideas regarding the setting in which the process is used or has been used. This may be done through the use of films, film strips, pictures, dramatic play, discussion, reading, and related activities.
5. Adequacy and authenticity of tools, materials, and steps in the process, with careful explanation of substitutes and deviations.
6. Group planning for the development of work standards, clarification of steps in the process, directions for use of materials to assure safety, and effectiveness of the activity.
7. Grouping of children for effective work.
8. Use of the materials after processing to further learning in the unit.
9. Critical evaluation of the process with careful scrutiny of authenticity, skills involved, and its contribution to understanding.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. What construction activities are appropriate for inclusion in a unit of work you are planning? What aspects of democratic behavior can children be guided to develop as they work on them? What concepts, appreciations, and attitudes can be improved? Are there other values or outcomes that can be achieved?

2. What materials can children process in a unit of your choice? Summarize the specific outcomes you hope to achieve as in the question above.

3. Discuss some of the instructional problems involved in planning

and developing construction activities. What can be done to overcome or minimize the problems? Do the same for processing of materials.

4. Discuss the relationships between dramatic play and construction. Summarize ways in which you can use both in a related way in a unit of your choice.

5. How can construction and processing of materials be made a part of the problem-solving process? Review the steps in problem solving on pages 161-162 and determine ways in which this can be done.

6. Visit a classroom in which you can observe a group of children processing materials or constructing objects. Use the checklist in this chapter to write up and discuss your observation.

7. How can constructed objects be used in the evaluation of learning? What emphasis should be given to the process involved in construction? What emphasis to the product? Discuss the same questions applied to processing of materials.

8. Many teachers find it helpful to construct certain objects themselves to place in the classroom for use in dramatic play, demonstrations, discussion, and the like. What are some objects you might make? What purposes would you have in mind for their use? If materials are available or can be obtained by you, proceed to construct one or more. Do the same for processing of materials.

REFERENCES

Bonser, Frederick G., and Lois C. Mossman, *Industrial Arts for Elementary Schools*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923. Contains a variety of activities with specific suggestions as to the steps to take to utilize them.

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. *Newer Instructional Practices of Promise*, Twelfth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1940. Chapter VI presents a sound point of view regarding the place of industrial arts experiences in the school program.

Fallis, Edwina, *The Child and Things*. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1940. A practical how-to-do-it book with many examples of objects children can make.

Hanna, Lavone, Neva Hagaman, and Gladys Potter, *Unit Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1955. Specific examples of construction activities in selected units of work are given along with suggestions for the teacher's use of them.

Horn, Ernest, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937, pp. 413-440. An excellent discussion of the place of activities in the social studies with emphasis upon the need for authenticity.

Moore, F. C., C. N. Hamburger, and A. L. Kingzett, *Handcrafts for Elementary Schools, A Handbook of Practical Suggestions for Teachers.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1953. By making a judicious selection of the projects presented in this text, it is possible for teachers to plan and develop many valuable activities.

Newkirk, L. V., *Integrated Handwork for Elementary Schools.* New York: Silver Burdett, 1940. A good handbook of activities with specific directions for developing them.

14

DRAMATIC REPRESENTATION AND RHYTHMIC EXPRESSION

Dramatic representation is used in the social studies to enable children to identify themselves with persons, places, and situations; it includes dramatic play, dramatization, rhythmic expression, and selected folk games or dances. When engaging in dramatic representation, children endeavor to put themselves in the place of others, to identify themselves with a situation, to portray their impressions of persons, places, and objects. At its best, dramatic representation in the social studies is sincere, realistic, childlike interpretation of experience. Through dramatic representation, children attempt to reconstruct and relive the experiences of others.

Dramatic play is informal and creative portrayal of experience without a set pattern or memorization of parts. The child interprets an experience as he sees it, and changes his interpretation as he gains more insight and information. *Dramatization* is more formal than dramatic play, and involves the enactment of an episode set by an individual or a group; a definite pattern is followed. Dramatic play becomes dramatization as a pattern and lines are set by the group. *Rhythmic expression,* sometimes called dramatic rhythms, may be defined as expression of experiences through bodily movements accompanied by music; rhythmic expression is similar to dramatic play in that it is creative, informal, and unpatterned; it differs from dramatic play and dramatization in that the rhythm involved is given major emphasis. *Folk dancing* as used in the social studies is rhythmic portrayal of dances of other groups, and differs from rhythmic bodily expression in that a set pattern of movement and musical accompaniment are followed.

In the following pages, major attention is given to *dramatic play* and *rhythmic expression.* The suggested readings at the end of this

section contain information relating to all types of dramatic representation.

DRAMATIC PLAY IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Play is a natural means of expression for children; it is a fundamental activity of childhood. Through play, children express themselves with all-absorbing wholeheartedness, sincerity, interest, and concentration. It is satisfying to them, and serves both as an outlet for expression of thoughts and feelings and as a means for gaining new experiences as they interact with objects and persons in their environment. Children's play is important to them; through it they enact, interpret, and express in a natural way their impressions of life about them.

Dramatic play, as used in the social studies, is a mode of expression whereby individuals identify themselves with persons and objects they have studied in various units of work; it is simulated activity in which children *act out* what they have experienced. Children engage in dramatic play in the social studies as they play house, school, store, or policemen, Indians, scouts, pioneers, señoritas, pilots, trainmen, explorers, and a host of other roles. As they engage in dramatic play, they use many concepts (for example, in a study of boats—harbor, tug, liner, bell buoy), share, take turns, cooperate, use many materials, apply ideas and information learned in varied activities, critically evaluate other's efforts as well as their own, and apply themselves intensely. Through dramatic play children attempt to identify themselves with a situation, to get *inside* a situation, to control it and direct it. For example, children cannot actually operate the community airport, a truck, a train, or a Conestoga wagon, but they can play in such a manner as to gain insight into their operation. They cannot be pioneers, scouts, señoritas, policemen, or firemen, but they can identify themselves with them through dramatic play. It is a practical, realistic approach to many social learnings of significance to children.

Free play outside of school differs in some respects from dramatic play in school.[1] At home children may play house, father, mother, baby, school, and the like without supervision, while at school they are guided to evaluate their play and plan ways of making it more educative. Play may develop to higher levels at school than it does at home because the teacher puts new materials in the environment, helps

[1] Lorraine Sherer, *Their First Years in School.* Los Angeles: County Board of Education, 1939, pp. 112-117.

children plan for needed materials, raises questions and gives constructive suggestions as needs arise, acts as arbiter when difficulties arise, helps children analyze play experiences, yet does all of this without overdirecting dramatic play or thwarting natural expression. At home they may play with one or two children, while at school they must consider a larger group and adjust their play to needs of the group. The content of play at home is whatever comes to mind at the moment, while dramatic play at school is more educative in that children are guided to play those things that will extend learning.

VALUES OF DRAMATIC PLAY. Dramatic play creates new interests, problems and needs. As children engage in dramatic representation, they encounter problems that require additional information for their solution. Real needs arise for the use of excursions, audio-visual aids, discussion, reading, research activities and interviewing. New interests are aroused and old interests are extended as children play different roles, use varied materials, and secure new information.[2]

By creating new interests and needs, dramatic representation serves as a dynamic force that moves the experiences in units of work forward continuously, and in a manner that is meaningful and practical to children. One group in a study of the airport discovered through attempts to act out the landing and dispatching of airplanes that they needed runways and a signal tower. This need in turn led to reading and interviewing. After completion of the runways and signal tower, dramatic play was resumed. During play the children discovered that rules were needed to govern landings and that information was needed on the loading and refueling of planes. This need led to a visit to the airport, interviewing, and additional reading. Before the visit to the airport was made, questions raised by the class were carefully formulated, listed on a chart, and sent to the airport official in charge of the excursion. These examples illustrate ways in which real needs can be created though dramatic play.

Dramatic play contributes to the development of democratic group-action skills. In order to engage in dramatic representation as a group, children must be helpful, cooperative, courteous, sensitive to the needs of others, responsible, and tolerant of each other. Materials and roles must be shared. Critical thinking skills are used to solve problems that arise. Group planning, discussion, and evaluation are

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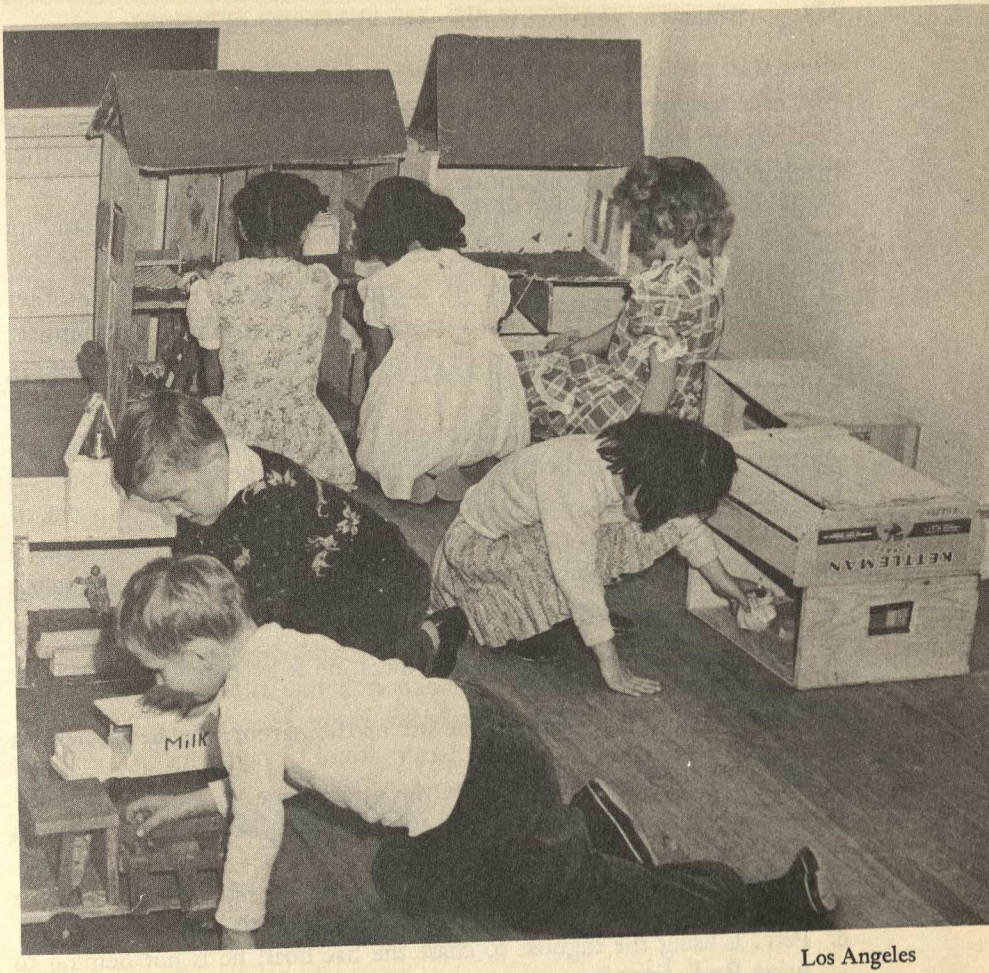
[2] For an excellent discussion see Corrine Seeds, "Newer Practices Involving Dramatic Play," *Newer Instructional Practices of Promise*, Twelfth Yearbook, Department of Supervisers and Directors of Instruction. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1939, pp. 116-142.



Los Angeles

Why is dramatic play such as this a natural mode of expression for the young child? What opportunities exist for developing sharing, cooperation, and creativeness?

used to make dramatic play more effective and satisfying. Because of the many satisfactions involved in dramatic play, democratic group-action skills are used in situations that are pleasant and significant to the child. Favorite attitudes toward democratic group processes and the values of cooperation, sharing, and concern for others may be developed in situations that are meaningful to children.

Dramatic play affords opportunities for evaluation of learning. As the teacher observes children in dramatic play, it is possible to gain insight into many aspects of child development and social learning. Misconceptions, difficulties in group relationships, inaccurate expres-

sions, and problems requiring further study may be noted. For example, one teacher observed children using several musical instruments incorrectly in a play episode dealing with life in China. Another teacher observed misconceptions regarding life in Boonesboro. In a study of aviation, several children revealed a lack of understanding of the operation of the airport. Hesitancy in sharing, failure to cooperate, and monopolization of materials were noted by another teacher as children dramatized various aspects of life in a community. Needs such as these may be used as the basis for evaluation, planning, and further study.

Children also reveal attitudes and feelings though dramatic play. As they become absorbed in a given situation, they release tensions, feelings, and attitudes toward self and others. Subjective aspects of learning, which can be appraised by the teacher who observes children engaging in dramatic play, are illustrated in the following notes taken from a teacher's record:

1. Billy needs help in sharing with others; he is keeping the boat away from Albert.
2. Mary is confused regarding the use of the harbor; she needs help in using the big boat.
3. Wayne is helping Betty operate the drawbridge.
4. Carl is showing more interest in working with others as he and two other children load the freighter.
5. John is disturbed because there is not room for him to help load the freighters; he doesn't see that he could work with Larry.
6. Peter is using the tugboat to chase the fire boat; he is not helping to bring Paul's liner in.
7. May and David are not participating; they do not appear to have definite purposes or a feeling of belonging to the group.
8. Ralph seems to be overcoming his tendency to sit aside; he is helping Dick load the boats.

Through group evaluation, discussion and planning, the teacher took steps to meet each of the needs revealed through dramatic play.

Had the teacher in the situation described above not used dramatic play, she probably would not have observed the needs that existed within the group. Through dramatic play it was possible for the teacher to appraise many aspects of learning that otherwise would have been overlooked and could not have been evaluated. Children with misconceptions, problems, and poor group-action skills would have been neglected.

Language growth and concept development are stimulated through dramatic play. New concepts and ideas are learned and used in situations of vital concern to children. New meanings are added to concepts that children develop through use in varied situations. Communication becomes a vital social instrument to further common purposes accepted by the group. Pre-planning and follow-up evaluation of dramatic representation provide opportunities for clarification of concepts, further use of language, and improvement of communication skills.

Growth in Dramatic Play. Growth in dramatic play is a steady progression from individual play to large-group play. At first, children enjoy playing alone, or with another child in parallel play in which two children, though playing side by side, may be carrying on individual roles. From this they move to playing together for short periods of time in a mutually helpful manner. Gradually, they are able to play satisfactorily with small groups, with large group play emerging around Grade IV. Other phases of growth in dramatic play are the shifts from unpatterned to patterned play, from free expression to selection of dialogue and action, and from dramatic play to actual dramatization. These are illustrated in the following:

Dramatic Representation or Play [3]

Kindergarten

Express in play the interpretations of observations, such as seeing a fire engine, feeding a pet, people and their activities, animals and their activities:

Sentences and refrains when playing alone.

Dramatic play with others.

First and Second Grade

Express orally impressions and interpretations of personal observations of people, their attitudes, feelings, activities; sounds and movements of animals, machinery, and so forth. Learn (1) to observe accurately; (2) to use observations to make the interpretations more interesting and to develop continuity in action:

Single episodes; as, playing school, churning butter.

Sequence of action; as, mother getting ready to go to the market, making purchases, returning home.

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[3] *Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Los Angeles County*. Los Angeles County Board of Education, 1944, pp. 9, 25, 48, 77, 106, 134, 169.

Third and Fourth Grade

Learn (1) to plan a pattern for dramatic play; (2) to select dialogue and action that further the dramatic play.

Interpret through dialogue and action everyday happenings of life; as, activities of workers in the community; activities relating to trucks, trains, boats.

Fifth and Sixth Grade

Learn (1) to plan a pattern for dramatic play; (2) to select the dialogue and action that further the dramatic play; (3) to organize a series of events into a play; (4) to recognize the elements that provide the plot in a play; (5) to recognize the differences between stage plays, puppet plays, radio scripts, motion-picture scripts.

Interpret through dialogue and action:

Stories heard and read.

Activities of workers in industry.

Activities of people living in other times and places.

Write the dialogue and directions for a play, a puppet play, a radio script, a motion-picture script, as both group and individual enterprises.

Illustrative Uses of Dramatic Play. Dramatic play may be employed in a variety of situations in the social studies. The following examples drawn from illustrative units of work commonly used in elementary schools are suggestive of many possibilities. As you read them, note ways in which you can use dramatic play in a unit of your choice:

1. *The Home.* Playing at working in the home, cleaning, gardening, washing and ironing, taking care of baby, preparing meals, serving meals, giving parties and inviting guests; being father, mother, or children; playing leisure time activities; telephoning for the groceries.

2. *The Food Store.* Playing the groceryman, the butcher, the cashier; using and polishing scales; arranging shelves and bins, making signs and price tags, sacking and weighing, selling, telephoning, paying bills, delivering goods to the store and to customers; being a customer.

3. *The Community.* Playing activities in the fire station, cleaning trucks, keeping the station neat; answering calls; running the post office, receiving, sorting, and delivering mail; operating a filling station; going to the park; giving broadcasts; running the airport; playing as other community workers.

4. *The Farm.* Playing as farm workers, pitching hay, feeding and watering animals, herding cows, milking cows, gathering eggs, cleaning pens, fixing the corral and barn; plowing and preparing land, seeding,

irrigating, harvesting; picking, washing, and bunching vegetables; loading, hauling and distributing produce in trucks.

5. *The Dairy Farm.* Playing as dairy farm workers, rounding up the cows, herding cows into the barn, guiding them into stalls, milking, separating milk and cream, making butter; loading milk and hauling it to the creamery in trucks; buying and selling milk.

6. *The Wholesale Market.* Receiving produce from the farmer; driving and unloading trucks; labeling crates; weighing and counting food articles.

7. *Trains.* Operating the trains, being engineers, firemen, brakemen, dispatchers; using the classification yard; loading and unloading freight; operating signals and switches; checking the freight; operating sand towers, water towers, and turntables; making repairs in the roundhouse.

8. *Our State.* Early ways of transporting goods and communicating with others; hunting; trading; other life activities; outstanding episodes and personalities in the growth of the state; modern ways of transporting goods, earning a living and communicating.

9. *Mexico.* Activities at work, at home, at fiestas, and bartering at the market; games such as Chiapinecas, Angels and the Devil, the Little Coyote and the Fox, La Pinata; activities such as Las Posadas at Christmas.

10. *China.* Travel in sampans, junks, and rickshas; preparing and serving Chinese meals and eating with chopsticks; house-building ceremony, visiting fortune-teller to determine lucky day, placing poles, frightening away evil spirits, group ceremony and feast, decoration of ridgepole, scattering of prosperity dumplings, dividing money, and so forth; using abacus in buying and selling; engaging in festivals such as New Year's, Festival of the Lanterns, Festival of the Dragon Boats, or Mid-Autumn or Moon Festival.

11. *Colonial Life.* Pilgrims leaving Holland; the trip in the Mayflower; the Mayflower Pact; landing at Plymouth Rock; Thanksgiving; starting the first community, meeting Indians, getting food, cutting logs, planning the houses, planting and hunting, spinning and carding wool, making soap and candles; playing games such as Leap Frog, Wood Tag, Spinning Tag; the First Thanksgiving; a Town Meeting; a day in the Colonial home; a visit with Indians; a quilting bee.

12. *Pioneers.* Playing as scouts, camping, hunting, cooking, trapping; activities of Daniel Boone; moving to the Ohio country, making a temporary camp, following the wilderness trail, finding a site for homes; life in Boonesboro; house raising; quilting bee; Indian attack; a pioneer school.

13. *Westward Movement.* Acting out the Lewis and Clark Expedition; a family moving by riverboat; traders going to Santa Fe; life at Independence; great scouts such as Kit Carson; getting supplies; loading the wagon, forming a wagon train and choosing leaders for the West-

Alameda County

Note the objects and costumes these children are using in their dramatization of life in early America. What research activities were necessary? What problem-solving techniques might be used to check authenticity of costumes? Make a plan for dramatization that will call for the use of related problem-solving techniques in a unit of your choice.

ward Trek; a day and a night on the trail; an Indian attack; fording rivers; crossing the Continental Divide; the Donner Party tragedy; arriving in the West and building homes.

14. *Communication through Radio.* Broadcasting station with program director, musical director, script writer and editor, station manager, special events editor, publicity man, control and transmitting engineers, traffic manager, announcer, actors, musicians, sound effects crew; using sound effects such as seeds on paper for rain, coconut shells for horses' hooves, cellophane rustling for fire, sandpaper blocks for train; putting on varied programs.

15. *Airport.* Acting out life at the airport, dispatching planes, landing and taking off, operating the control tower, putting planes in hangars; playing as pilots, dispatchers, refuelers, agents, controllers, mechanics, stewardesses, food purveyors, passengers; planning flights, checking weather reports, checking cargo; loading passengers; taking historic flights.

Guiding Dramatic Play. It should be recognized that dramatic play calls for a high level of competence on the part of the teacher. Children's first efforts at dramatic play in school are likely to be somewhat chaotic and confusing from the adult's point of view. A

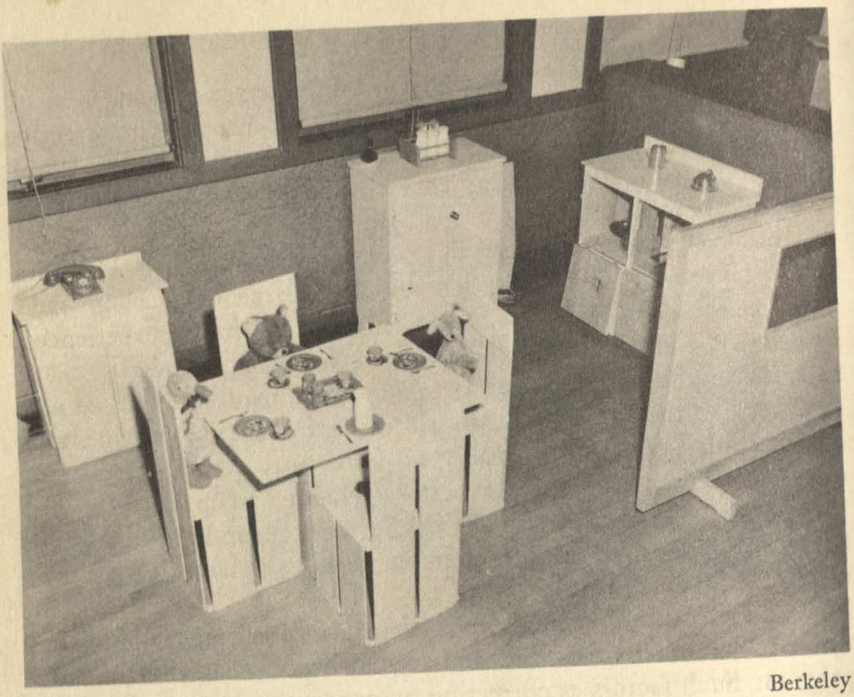
few children will be overstimulated, while others, not being sure of themselves, will sit by. Some children may use materials incorrectly, exhibit misconceptions, and not share with others. Other children may have problems of social adjustment, which invariably arise as groups work and play together.

But what an opportunity this presents to the teacher! Here are revealed problems, misconceptions, needs, preferences, feelings, and group action skills that may be used in planning future experiences. Real-to-the-child problems, such as needs for group standards, materials, sharing, helping others, and taking turns, may be discussed and analyzed by the group as plans are made for the improvement of dramatic play. There is probably no faster way for the teacher to discover needs, nor is there a better technique to make them real to the child. The purposes of the teacher emerge, and are fused with the needs and problems that children themselves have felt as they engaged in dramatic play.

The richness of dramatic play depends upon teacher guidance, materials in the environment, and related experiences in the school program. Such factors as correcting misconceptions, promoting creativity, determining length of play, arranging play groups, promoting social adjustment, and meeting individual needs will require careful planning and guidance on the part of the teacher. Attention must be given to children's backgrounds and to aspects needing enrichment so that play may be more satisfying and educative. Their play preferences, ways of behaving, group action skills, past experiences, and ability to analyze play situations are significant factors in planning. Materials needed in play must be introduced so that children will actually use realia or objects that they construct to further play interests. Related experiences such as study trips, construction, and group discussion contribute greatly to the richness of dramatic play. Guided observation of people at work, making things to use in play, and discussion to clarify needs and questions give dramatic play a reality that can be secured in no other way.

Planning with children is a first step in guiding dramatic play. Attention should be given to such questions as:

What shall we do today?
What other suggestions are there?
What space do we need?
What materials are needed?
What parts would you like to play?



Berkeley

How might you arrange an attractive center of interest like the one above to stimulate children to engage in dramatic play?

By beginning with *what to do*, many possibilities can be opened up, thus giving each child an opportunity to consider various roles to play. Furthermore, dramatic play can be related to needs and interests that have arisen in the unit.

The teacher's role during dramatic play is that of observing dramatic play to discover needs and problems, but not of interfering unless quarreling or other serious difficulties arise. Attention should be given to such factors as use of concepts, misconceptions, effectiveness of language, information being used, social interaction, self-direction, use of group standards for play, and special needs and problems. Notes should be taken during dramatic play so that specific guidance and evaluation may be carried out during follow-up discussion.

After dramatic play, time should be taken for sharing and evaluation through discussion of what was played, what was enjoyed, ways in which cooperation and concern for others were used, problems that arose, materials that are needed for future play, and ways in which play may be improved so that it will be more educative. The teacher should guide the discussion so that appropriate points that have been

San Diego County

Dramatic play centered in the activities of community workers enables children to develop rich understandings and concepts. What planning do you think was necessary for this activity? What clues for evaluation and future planning might the teacher obtain by observing the children as they act out various roles?

noted during play will be considered. The teacher should avoid such pitfalls as being overly critical, setting unrealistic standards, dominating the discussion, and failing to remember that play must be enjoyable.

Emphasis should be given to the processes involved in dramatic play, not just to the end result. Creative thinking and expression are desired rather than a polished exhibition. Dramatic play loses value when attempts are made to secure a finished product devoid of original and spontaneous identification with those things of concern to the group.

This does not imply that carelessness, haphazardness, and lack of planning characterize dramatic play. Attention is given to planning, evaluation, use of materials, and correct use of concepts so that the group can achieve wholehearted identification with those aspects of living involved in their play. Let us consider examples at the primary and intermediate levels as illustrations.

The first example arose in connection with a study of the grocery store as one aspect of community living. The children had built trucks and had arranged a simple store and wholesale market as a play center. They had visited a wholesale market and had developed their play beyond the manipulative stage, which involved merely pushing trucks around and placing goods on the shelves, to that of getting supplies and delivering them to the store. The following account describes the planning, play activities, and follow-up evaluation.

Teacher: When we talked about our dramatic play yesterday, we decided there were some things we needed to remember. Several of you suggested that we could improve our play. Do you remember what was mentioned?

Jack: Ben suggested that we needed wider streets. Our buildings need to be farther apart.

Mary: Yes. Trucks may stay on the right side of the street, too.

Paul: The market man should be sure to look at the clock. He was late to the market. He came after seven o'clock. It would be closed.

Teacher: If we have our standards in mind, we should be ready. What are you going to play today, Mary?

The discussion continued with comments made by different groups as to what they were going to play and the materials they were going to use. A group that was not going to play discussed their work and proceeded to go to their work table. The rest of the children started dramatic play in small groups and the teacher observed the following:

1. Five or six children played at the market. Three trucks lined up at the market, some delivering materials and others picking up goods. One child attempted to crowd in line with his truck.
2. Several children were at houses along the street. They cleaned their houses, walked to market and drove cars. One girl played that she was a lady buying something from the huckster who had stopped in front with his truck; she selected fruits and vegetables.
3. Several children went to the store and bought cereal, salt, raisins, and oranges. Two children were noticed going out of the store without paying for their goods.

When dramatic play time was finished, the teacher rang the bell and the children came together in a circle and discussed their play in this manner:

Teacher: Were you having fun, John?

John: Yes. Lots of people came to the store.

Mary: I went to the store but John didn't have any fruit. I forgot to have you check my things.

John: I will check them next time, if you bring them. Anyway, remember what you got. I will have some fruit next time.

Ruth: I need some fruit, too.

Mary: Why didn't you call up the wholesale market and get some?

John: I forgot.

Teacher: Would they have brought your order out?

John: I think so.

Mary: No, they wouldn't. They come once a week. I've seen them.

Jack: They deliver more than that.

Teacher: Since we aren't sure, let's add that to our list of things we have to find out. (*Teacher proceeds to write it on the board.*) Are there other problems?

Ann: Milk was too high. He charged twenty-five cents.

John: I didn't know how much it was.

Ann: Usually about twenty cents.

Teacher: How can you be sure?

Children: We will check at the store. (*Teacher proceeds to list this question on the "find out" list.*)

Teacher: How were the streets today?

Children: Lots better. Jim used a block for a stop sign.

Jim: I'm going to make some real signals during work time. Then everyone can tell what they are.

Teacher: Did everything go well at the market today?

Betty: No, it was too crowded. Trucks came so fast they bumped into each other, and we couldn't take care of the people.

Patty: The trucks could not park at all.

Norman: I wanted to buy vegetables and I couldn't find a place to buy them.

Teacher: When we go to the wholesale market, should the trucks be going in different directions?

Horace: No, there are regular streets. The trucks went the right way, except two boys who tried to crowd in.

Paul: Yes, we had some things to deliver in a hurry. We didn't want them to spoil.

Betty: It wouldn't have taken much longer for you to have waited.

Mary: I guess maybe they wouldn't have spoiled. I tried to crowd in, too.

(Discussion should continue as long as interest in problems continues, but not after children become restless. The teacher notices this and concludes the discussion.)

Teacher: That goes with the list of suggestions. Let's remember them tomorrow.

The second example shows that much planning, discussion, and research are necessary to make dramatic play effective in the intermediate and upper grades. Briefly listed are the activities of a group of ten-year-olds who decided to act out the journey of pioneer families into Kentucky. The following brief summary lists the experiences involved in the total activity of planning, playing, and evaluating dramatic play over a period of several days.

1. Discussing the stories read about the journey and making a list of important points to incorporate in the play:
   a. Welcoming Daniel Boone home.
   b. Talking things over with the settlers.
   c. Preparation for the trip.
   d. Problems of travel over the trail.
   e. The departure for Russell Camp.
   f. Indians' attack, which was damaging to the settlers.
   g. The returning home of many settlers.
2. Finding out what the settlers took with them.
3. Finding out the ways in which the pioneers traveled. Deciding upon the trail they took and finding out about the dangers. Locating the trail and rivers on a map.
4. Reading material about early settlers, hearing stories read by the teacher, and writing creatively.
5. Finding out how to mark trees, how to cut down obstacles, and how to stay on the trail.
6. Making plans to incorporate these ideas in dramatic activities.
7. Carrying out the plan and evaluating the effectiveness of individual and group activities.

Group standards evolve during discussion periods after play in which democratic sharing and evaluation take place. Standards are developed to make play more democratic, more meaningful, and more favorable to rich social learning. They are developed by the group under teacher guidance, and not imposed by the teacher, since group understanding and group acceptance are basic. They must be sensed as needs real to the group, and must be directly related to problems that have arisen during dramatic play.

During a unit on boats and harbors one group developed the standards in Chart 1 after a play period in which very little fun was possible because of "wrong boat sounds," "getting in the way," "paying no attention to the captain," and "fireboats tugging liners in." Following dramatic play involving life at Boonesboro another group developed the standards in Chart 2 because several children had failed to play their roles authentically.

Dramatic play should be used to stimulate learning in the social studies, not as an isolated activity. The following examples illustrate ways in which needs and problems arising in dramatic play have been used to promote social learning.

1. A group was playing boats and harbor. A liner was signaling to enter the harbor. One child with a fire boat and a child with a tug boat went out to guide it in. The boy with the tug protested, saying, "This is for tugs, not fire boats." The child with the first boat said, "I got here first, so I can bring her in." During the evaluation period, attention was given to using boats for the right job and to helping others to carry out their jobs.

RUNNING THE HARBOR

1. Share the boats with others.
2. Remember how each boat sounds.
3. Keep the harbor open for liners.
4. Let the tugs pull the liner in.
5. Listen to the captain's signals.

Chart 1

PROTECTING BOONESBORO

1. Sentinels should keep a sharp lookout.
2. The gates should be closed on the signal.
3. Gun loaders should load guns and not shoot.
4. Scouts should sneak out through the little gate.
5. Get gun powder out of the powder horns.
6. Listen for the right signals.

Chart 2

2. Several children were re-enacting life on the Oregon Trail. They had gathered around the campfire and were discussing the day's journey. One child suggested that they should sing some songs while sitting around the fire. When asked to sing, several children suggested contemporary songs. One child said they should learn "real ones sung by the pioneers." Later they learned *Dan Tucker*, *O Susannah*, and similar songs, along with folk dances typical of pioneer times.

3. In a study of the wholesale markets a group was loading produce to haul to market. "Oranges, pears, and beans" were being dumped into a truck in a helter-skelter fashion. A child with boxes and crates for loading was being overlooked because the truckers were too eager to "haul the stuff to town." During the discussion, the following questions were considered: "What is grown on the farm?" "How are

trucks loaded?" "What boxes and crates are used for oranges?" "Where should the crates be placed?" "How can the truckers help in loading?"

4. During a play situation related to the airport several children tried to land their planes at the same time and in several different directions. This led to a discussion of the role of the dispatcher, use of wind socks, rules for landing, and need for a visit to an airport. Following the field trip to a nearby airport, the model airport was replanned, rules for landing were made, and play was resumed on a higher level.

5. Children may use certain terms in their play, but meanings may be hazy and inaccurate. For example, in a study of life on the farm, the following comments were noted by the teacher:

Girl: Put the pig in his trough.
Boy: No, pigs are kept in the corral.
Girl: They are not. Corrals are for cows.
Boy: Pigs eat in troughs, so you can't put 'em there.

In the follow-up discussion these and other concepts were clarified through review of a recent field trip and by the use of large pictures showing pig pens, troughs, and corrals.

Continuous planning is needed to bring about educative dramatic play. Basic considerations include group planning and evaluation, adequate time and space, grouping for effective play, arranging the classroom, selecting play materials, and providing backgrounds of concepts and information through excursions, audio-visual aids, construction, expression through art and music, and language experiences. The following checklist is a summary of specific factors that may be used to plan, carry out, and evaluate dramatic play.

Guide for Observing, Planning, and Evaluating Dramatic Play

Teacher Pre-planning

1. What needs have arisen for dramatic play?
2. Which children probably will wish to start playing first? Which should?
3. What will others do?
4. Are materials available and accessible?
5. Are space arrangements adequate?
6. Are new ideas and information needed to enrich play? How should they be introduced?

Group Planning

1. Is attention given to "what to play?"
2. Do the children select important aspects of living to play?
3. Are needs for materials considered?
4. Do individuals suggest roles to play?
5. Are all children involved in the planning?
6. Does each child who is to participate know his role and the materials to use?
7. Are new ideas and materials introduced to enrich the play?

During the Activity

CHILDREN:

1. Are the children identifying themselves with the person and objects involved?
2. Is democratic behavior, such as cooperation, concern for others, and creativeness, evidenced by the children?
3. Are important aspects of living portrayed in the play?
4. Is the play satisfying to, and enjoyed by, the children?
5. Are space and materials used effectively?
6. Are suggestions made during planning carried out in the play?
7. Are concepts being used accurately?

TEACHER:

1. Are new needs emerging for:
   a. Construction
   b. Information
   c. Group standards
   d. Language expression
2. Are democratic behavior patterns developing?
3. Are concepts being expressed accurately in language and in action?
4. Are any individuals confused or uncertain as to purpose, use of materials, or role?
5. Are changes needed in space arrangements or materials?
6. Are any harmful or dangerous activities carried on during play?

Group Evaluation:

1. Does the group consider the play in light of the purposes set during planning?
2. Are newly discovered needs and problems considered?
3. Are inaccuracies and misconceptions clarified?
4. Is each individual participating?
5. Does the group give evidence of real satisfaction and enjoyment?
6. Are leads secured to other group and individual activities that will extend and broaden interests and keep the unit moving forward?

RHYTHMIC EXPRESSION

Rhythmic expression in the social studies is the child's interpretation through bodily movement of impressions secured through his own experiences. Rhythmic expression differs from mimetics in that each child expresses his own impressions and gives his own interpretation; he does not imitate something about which he knows little or nothing. It differs from dramatic play in that the emphasis is upon rhythmic bodily movements with musical accompaniment rather than upon dramatic representation; it is similar to dramatic play in that it is the child's own portrayal and expression of ideas, objects, or persons. Rhythmic expression differs from creative dance in that the child is interpreting something learned in the social studies; it is similar to creative dance in that the child gives his interpretation, not that of another.[4]

Children are quick to respond to the rhythm that abounds in life about them. Grain swaying in the field, waves rolling on to shore, birds flying from tree to tree, men at work in the community, or trains starting and stopping will stimulate rhythmical expression that is natural and spontaneous. Similarly, rich experiences in the social studies lead to rhythmical responses that are meaningful demonstrations of the child's impressions.

"I'll show you how the liner comes in," said a boy demonstrating the slow even movement of the large ocean liner.

"Out goes the pilot boat," said a girl moving gracefully and speedily as she gave her interpretation of the pilot boat she had seen on an excursion to the harbor.

"Here comes a tug to help," said another child moving slowly but powerfully to assist the liner.

"Here comes another tug. Chug! Chug! Chug!" said a boy who had seen a tug at work in the harbor nearby. With surprising realism, he moved over to help bring the liner in.

Thus do children spontaneously and eagerly use rhythmic expression through bodily movement to interpret experiences they have had.

Rhythmic expression may be used in many different situations in the social studies. The following examples have been taken from selected units of work developed by successful teachers in the ele-

[4] For a good discussion see Lorraine Sherer, *Their First Years in School.* Los Angeles: County Board of Education, 1939, pp. 182-189.

mentary school. As you read them, note ways in which you can use rhythms in a unit of your choice.

1. *The Home.* Home activities such as washing and ironing clothes; digging, raking, and working in the garden; play activities such as swinging, sliding, climbing, seesawing; using fundamental rhythms, such as marching, skipping, running, galloping, hopping, and sliding to express thoughts and feelings; using rhythm instruments to accompany bodily movement.

2. *Community.* Rhythms related to growing things such as the trees, flowers, and shrubs; community work activities such as loading and unloading trucks, building and painting houses; movement of trucks and trains; rain, snow, and wind; using fundamental rhythms and rhythm instruments creatively to express ideas grasped in the social studies.

3. *The Farm.* Activities of the farmer such as working in the field, milking, riding horses, driving tractors, loading and unloading trucks; movements of farm animals; swaying wheat fields.

4. *Freight Trains.* Movements of trains starting, gaining speed, speeding along, slowing down, stopping, putting cars on a siding, backing up, coupling and uncoupling cars; wigwag signals; signalling trains to start and stop; loading and unloading.

5. *Mexico.* Carrying baskets to market; weaving; dancing at the fiesta; loading and unloading burros; hammering silver; working in the fields.

6. *Pioneers.* Bodily expression of movements in such processes as making candles, quilting, and weaving; building, cutting trees, digging, planting, hunting, making log canoes; movements of animals in the forest.

In addition to interpretation through creative rhythms, there is a real place for folk games and folk dances in the social studies. Many units would be incomplete if folk dances were omitted. For example, the *Fandango*, *La Cucaracha*, and *St. Michael's Wheel* in units on Mexico, and *Old Dan Tucker*, *Virginia Reel*, and *Captain Jenks* in units on Pioneer Life are most appropriate. Other examples can be found in the selected references at the end of this chapter.

Growth in rhythmic bodily expression progresses from simple interpretation of single episodes to more complete patterns of expression centered in a unifying theme. At first children's responses to rhythm are simple and short in duration. A single phrase of an activity, such as the train starting, may be interpreted with real satisfaction. Other phases, such as gaining speed, slowing down, or going up a steep hill, may be added later. Still later, several phases are brought together in a pattern of rhythm that is the child's portrayal of the complete activity. Finally, several children cooperate in rhythmic bodily expres-

Battle Creek, Michigan

Why does rhythmic expression become more patterned as children mature?

sion of related activities, such as the train backing up to couple cars, starting up, traveling along, leaving cars at different places, and arriving at its destination. In this final stage the group develops a unifying pattern that is more satisfying and meaningful than individual interpretations.

As children mature their rhythmic responses tend to become more advanced and involved. Thus, in the intermediate grades rhythmic expression may be based on vicarious experience as well as firsthand experience. For example, a group of ten-year-olds will tend to develop definite patterns and story-forms, such as "pioneers hunting and trapping," in which several episodes are woven into a rhythmic story of the activities involved. Much time and care will also be spent in finding music which "fits the story." Many individuals develop unusual skill in creating various dance forms to portray their impressions of life activities of other people.

Guiding Rhythmic Expression. In developing rhythmic experiences with children the first consideration is to build a rich background of experience. Study trips taken so that children can actually see that which is to be interpreted are helpful. Films, pictures, and recordings add to the meaningfulness of the experience. Rich literary experiences and follow-up discussion give additional insights.

After rich backgrounds of experience have been developed the group should discuss the rhythms involved and witness individual demonstrations voluntarily given by different children. Experimentation whereby children try one form and then another, inventing new modes of bodily expression, should be used. Each child's contributions should be well received and commended by the teacher and the group.

At first a few children may give their own interpretations. Others may join later and add new movements or carry out rhythms that have been learned earlier yet are adapted to the new situation.

Following the first rhythmic expression, group discussion should be carried out to share ideas and consider outstanding movements. This may lead to the selection of one or more rhythms that express the group's ideas in an effective and satisfying manner.

Later the selected rhythms may be tried again, new ideas being added as they develop. Group planning and evaluation should produce new ideas and lead to a pattern of expression that is more unified and complete than first trials. Needs may arise for more experiences to enrich backgrounds, such as a field trip, a film, or stories related to the activity. These should be provided so that the cycle of planning, engaging in rhythmical expression, and evaluation may be carried on to higher and more meaningful levels.

Illustrative of the foregoing points is the following example of a group of seven-year-olds engaging in rhythmic expression in connection with a unit on Boats. The group had just visited a harbor and had seen freighters, liners, and tugs in action. They were eager to interpret what they had seen on the study trip, and, in the teacher's opinion, rhythmic bodily expression was an excellent way to do so. The activity developed as follows:

Teacher: Remember all the boats we saw down at the harbor? Which ones glided along smoothly with the wind?

Child A: Sailboats; lots of 'em. They made me think of our sailboat song.

Teacher: Remember our sailboat song! Let's sing it. (*The group proceeds to sing it. The teacher notices that several children are adding rhythmic expression as they sing it.*) I noticed some of you moving as if you were sailboats. Who can show us how they go in the water as we sing it again? (*Three children volunteer and demonstrate the movements of sailboats as the group sings.*) Notice those sailboats and the nice tall masts. Would others care to join them? (*Three other children join the group and the activity is repeated.*) That was fine. What other boats did we see and how did they move on the water?

Child B: I liked the way the tugs helped the liner come in.

Teacher: Would you care to show us how they move? We will need a liner, too. First, let's get a liner coming in and then have a tug help it to dock.

Child C: May I be the liner?

Child B: I'll be the tug. (*The volunteers proceed to demonstrate the movements of the liner and the tug.*)

Child D: One tug isn't enough. May I be another?

Teacher: Yes, you may help bring the liner in. (*The liner enters the bay and the tugs push it gently into port.*) Would you like to have the sailboats over on one side of the bay and the liners and the tugs coming in together?

Children: Yes.

Teacher: Who would like to be sailboats? (*Several children volunteer.*) And who would like to have a turn at being a liner and a tug? (*Others volunteer.*)

At this point, the teacher is beginning to move the group toward a unifying theme in their rhythmic expression of activities in the harbor.

On following days, the group developed a unified theme after adding waves, bell buoys, freighters, fireboats, and pilot boats to the group activity. Simple demonstrations were first given for each type of boat after the function of each one had been considered. In this way, a pattern developed that was a meaningful representation of activities of boats in the harbor as seen by the group.

Experiences such as the foregoing require specific planning, guidance, and evaluation. Guidelines are presented in the checklist that follows that will help the group to obtain maximum value from the use of rhythmic expression in the social studies.

Checklist for Observing, Planning, and Evaluating Rhythmic Expression

A. *Teacher Pre-planning*

1. Have experiences been provided for development of activities which may be expressed meaningfully through rhythmic expression?
2. How can previous experiences with rhythms be used in planning, enriching, and evaluating this experience?
3. Does the selected activity lend itself to rhythmic expression?
4. How many children can be accommodated in available space?
5. Is satisfactory musical accompaniment available?

B. *Group Planning*

1. Do the children sense needs for planning and see relationships between the rhythms and ideas to be expressed?
2. Do they draw upon previous experiences in discussing and demonstrating rhythmic movements?
3. Do they sense the rhythmic pattern involved?
4. Are suggestions made regarding the use of space and materials?
5. What types of rhythmic responses are suggested?
6. Is guidance given in helping the group select music to fit the rhythms?
7. Are suggestions made regarding group organization and individual roles? Are the children's suggestions valued and used?
8. Are suggestions secured regarding a unifying pattern appropriate to the group's level of development?

C. *During Rhythmical Activity*

1. Are the responses individualized and spontaneous?
2. Is the expression guided by suggestions made during planning?
3. Are fundamental rhythms, such as walking, running, skipping, hopping, and galloping, being woven into a unified pattern?
4. Are materials and space being used so that they contribute to creative expression?
5. Is increased understanding of the ideas, objects, or persons involved being revealed?
6. Does the accompaniment contribute to effective expression or detract from it?
7. Is the group revealing increased sensitivity to changing moods by varying rhythmical expression accordingly?
8. Are the children growing in confidence, poise, and control?
9. Is the teacher noting items for consideration during evaluation?

D. *Group Evaluation*

1. Are each child's suggestions and comments considered?
2. Are individual demonstrations voluntarily given to clarify points?
3. Are there questions and comments relative to use of space?
4. Is group discussion leading toward a more unified pattern?
5. Is the accompaniment considered to be appropriate by the group?
6. Are more effective and satisfying modes of expression considered?
7. Are related activities and needs for further background experience considered, such as an excursion to clarify ideas?
8. Do the children express pleasure and satisfaction as a result of the experience?

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Which of the types of dramatic representation and rhythmic expression discussed in this chapter are appropriate for use in a unit you are planning to teach? Relate each type to a significant problem or topic in the unit of work.

2. Do you agree with the stated values of dramatic play? Are there other values? Are there certain limitations?

3. Adults engage in dramatic representation in a variety of situations. In some instances we refer to it as *simulated* activity—maneuvers at sea, war games, training of firemen, first aid practice and the like. Why are such activities helpful? Do they possess many of the same values found in dramatic play?

4. Observe a group of children who are engaging in dramatic play. Note the stage of development of their play. Note concern for others, cooperation, and other aspects of democratic behavior. Observe the teacher's role in planning and in evaluation. Note ways in which materials are used. Use the checklist on pages 384-385 to write up a summary of your experience.

5. Which of the examples of rhythmic expression have you observed in the elementary school? Arrange to visit an elementary school in which you can observe expert teachers guiding children in rhythmic expression. Use the checklist on pages 390-391 as a guide.

6. Consult a physical education manual for teachers, or one of the pertinent references at the end of this chapter, and select three or four folk dances that can be used in a unit you are planning.

7. How can dramatic representation and rhythmic expression be made a part of the problem-solving process? Check the steps in problem solving on pages 161-162 and note specific examples of ways to use them in problem solving.

8. How can dramatic representation and rhythmic expression be used to evaluate social learning? What emphasis should be given to the processes involved? What attention should be given to the finished product?

9. Many teachers state that the actual experience of engaging in role playing, or in dramatic play, provides insights that can be achieved in no other way. Select a situation and "act it out" in cooperation with fellow students or teachers. Discuss it afterwards in terms of the values given in this chapter and in terms of the checklist on pages 384-385.

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EVALUATION OF LEARNING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Evaluation in the social studies is the process of determining the kind and extent of changes in the behavior of children that result from experiences designed to promote social learning. Evaluation consists of all things that the teacher, the children, the principal, and other school workers do to appraise the outcomes of the program. Evaluation involves such steps as (1) formulating goals as behaviors, (2) securing evidence on the achievement of goals in selected situations, (3) summarizing and recording evidence, (4) interpreting evidence, and (5) using interpretations to improve children's learning. Evaluation is more than testing and measurement; it includes all of the procedures used to answer the question: "How well are the purposes of the social studies being achieved?"

Evaluation makes many contributions to the social studies program. Through evaluation, teachers gain insight into children's needs, problems, strengths, and weaknesses. Evaluative evidence is helpful in developing learning experiences, unit planning, selection of materials, appraisal of methods, and reorganization of the program. Objectives can be clarified and changed as a result of evaluation. Increased motivation and self-direction are typical outcomes of self-evaluation by children. Feelings of security for both teacher and children can be developed if results are used constructively to strengthen the program. Finally, evaluation is essential in gathering the evidence needed to interpret and report the child's growth and development to parents, and in carrying out the public relations program in the community.

GUIDELINES TO EFFECTIVE EVALUATION

There are several guiding principles upon which the program of evaluation should be based. Their practical value has been demon-

strated in many school systems throughout the country. They serve as a framework for effective development and use of evaluative devices in all aspects of appraisal. They may be used in guiding self-evaluation, in teacher appraisal of classroom experiences, and in appraising the over-all effectiveness of the program.

EVALUATION AS A COOPERATIVELY DEVELOPED POINT OF VIEW. Teachers occupy a key position in evaluation, since their point of view, methods of teaching, knowledge of children's growth characteristics, selection of materials, and ability to make intelligent judgments in the light of democratic values determine the quality of evaluation. The most carefully planned program of evaluation cannot rise above the point of view of the teachers who are operating it.

Teachers must be cognizant of the point of view that they use in evaluation, since values determine the emphasis given to appraisal of learning experiences. Consider the case of two teachers attempting to foster self-evaluation in children. Both of them used charts, examples of which follow, to guide the evaluation of discussion.

GOOD WORKERS

1. Do what the teacher says.
2. Answer all the questions at the end of each chapter.
3. Read the assignment again if they have finished.

Chart 1

WORKING TOGETHER

1. Help in group planning.
2. Carry out group plans.
3. Use many sources of ideas.

Chart 2

One teacher developed the chart cooperatively with the class on the basis of needs that had arisen; the other imposed the chart on the class, using it as an admonition to work harder. One teacher conceived evaluation as being part of the instructional program; the other saw it as a tool to secure obedience. One viewed it as being cooperative, the other as teacher-dominated. Thus, each teacher's point of view brought about a vastly different type of evaluation.

EVALUATION AS AN INTEGRAL PART OF INSTRUCTION. It is impossible to separate appraisal from instruction in the classroom. The alert teacher observes and notes children's needs, makes changes, and improves the program as it is being developed in the classroom. Some of the most valuable evaluative procedures, such as group discussion, observation by the teacher, making charts on group standards, and

using checklists, are part of instructional procedures. Under sound teacher guidance, they grow out of important needs and problems in a sequence that is natural, reasonable, and inherent in the instructional program.

Evaluation must be viewed as an integral part of instruction because it permeates all aspects of experiencing in the social studies. As children engage in group planning, they clarify purposes and needs. This may be followed by a consideration of ways of working together, methods of securing ideas, and sources of information that will be most helpful. As ideas are gathered, organized, interpreted, and used, appraisals are made of data, suggestions, and ideas used in the solution of problems. Planning periods lead to the development of work standards, behavior checklists, and tests of information as real needs for them arise. Group discussion leads to changes in plans, the use of additional sources of ideas, and the discovery of new needs. Thus, evaluation of problems, procedures, ways of working together, attitudes, and ideas, are an integral part of instruction in the social studies from both the child's and the teacher's point of view.

Evaluation as a Continuous Process. This principle flows from the one immediately preceding and suggests that effective evaluation is going on all the time in the classroom. This means simply that throughout the day, from day to day, and from week to week throughout the year, constant and continuous appraisals must be made, both by the children and the teacher. This guideline further suggests that evaluation is not something that is done just before the report cards are given out. It is involved in each experience and provides evidence regarding the needs, interests, and behavior of children, as well as information regarding the effectiveness of the program.

This principle does not imply that periodic summaries and scheduled testing have no place in evaluation. As a comprehensive picture of the child's development is being built up, many different devices should be used at stated intervals. For example, checklists and tests are used in some school systems at stated intervals to evaluate growth in concepts and attitudes. Periodic summaries are made for use in reporting to parents, summarizing the work of a term or year, or for use in counseling and guidance. All of these procedures, however, should be viewed as part of a continuum designed to show developmental changes in the child's behavior as he progresses through school.

Evaluation as a Cooperative Process. Evaluation must be done in cooperation with other teachers, the children, parents, supervisors, and administrators. All have a stake in the program. The teacher and

the children share in the clarification of purposes and in the use of various techniques of evaluation. Group evaluation and many types of self-evaluation are based on group-made standards and goals. Parents should become involved in the discussion of goals, the clarification of goals in terms of the hopes they have for their children, and the interpretation of information gleaned through the use of evaluative instruments. Supervisors and administrative officers must also cooperate in the program in order to give it balance, direction, and systematic consideration. They should assist in planning and developing a more effective program and in interpreting and using evaluative evidence. Unless a program is cooperatively operated, it will not yield maximum returns.

EVALUATION MADE IN TERMS OF THE PURPOSES OF THE PROGRAM. The central function of evaluation is to determine the extent to which established goals are achieved. In appraisal by the teacher and in self-evaluation by children, goals must be clearly defined. Attention must be given to attitudes, concepts, group processes, utilization of skills, and growth in interests, and not solely to facts and information. It is very important that all outcomes—emotional, social, intellectual, physical—be evaluated.

Evaluation is facilitated if goals are defined behaviorally. Theoretical and lofty statements of purposes provide little direction for sound evaluation. By stating purposes in terms of behavior, it is possible to get a clear grasp of the meaning involved. For example, responsibility may be appraised specifically and concretely when defined as follows:

A child who is developing responsibility:

1. Helps in planning ways to meet needs and problems.
2. Works on his own problems.
3. Works on problems with others.
4. Follows group plans and directions.
5. Uses tools and materials carefully.
6. Helps others when they need or ask for help.
7. Seeks help when it is needed.
8. Finishes individual and group jobs.
9. Works well without supervision.

Such a statement enables the teacher to do down-to-earth appraisal in getting at such questions as: "What experiences are most effective in developing this type of behavior?" "Which children are developing these aspects of behavior?" "Which children need help?" "What situations should be provided?"

EVALUATION MADE IN A VARIETY OF SITUATIONS. Children's growth in attitudes, interests, concepts, and group action skill can be noted in group planning, discussion, sharing, reporting, and evaluation. Behavior in dramatic play, construction, rhythms, and folk dancing reveals many evidences of growth. The ways in which children use materials, share materials with others, take and give suggestions, accept newcomers, and work together are of especial importance. These and other situations should be used to determine whether or not key learnings are carrying through into a variety of situations.

Creative efforts of children also reveal evidence of social learning. The teacher should be alert to new ideas, new ways of doing things, originality in construction, dramatic play, artistic expression, and suggestions that arise in group discussion. These are excellent clues to social development. Their evaluation requires a wholesome classroom atmosphere, encouragement of creative expression, respect for each child's contribution, and absence of embarrassment or ridicule. A further requirement is that something good be found in all work sincerely done as it is shared with the group. Finally, creative expression gives the child opportunities to demonstrate in a natural and novel way the behavior and ideas that he is learning. Creative experiences have a freshness and spontaneity that are highly indicative of the real learning taking place; they reveal evidence which otherwise would be unobtainable.

VARIETY OF DEVICES AND PROCEDURES IN EVALUATION. If all outcomes are to be appraised, then many different instruments and techniques are needed. For example, checklists can be designed to appraise cooperation, discussion, and use of materials. Tests are available for measuring concepts, information, and attitudes. Anecdotal records, charts, rating scales, and other devices can be used as special needs arise. The following list contains the devices in use in many school systems at the present time: [1]

Directed observation	Logs	Case studies
Informal observation	Diaries	Activity records
Group discussion	Autobiographies	Recordings
Small group interview	Scrapbooks	Photographs
Individual interview	Collections	Movies
Case conference	Samples of work	Stenographic reports
Checklists	Teacher-made tests	Cumulative records

[1] J. U. Michaelis, "Current Practices in Evaluation in City School Systems," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 9:15-22, Spring, 1949.

Rating scales	Group-made tests	Pupil graphs
Inventories	Standardized tests	Profiles
Questionnaires	Sociometric tests	Sociograms
Charts	Anecdotal records	Flow of discussion charts
Evaluative criteria	Behavior journals	

The selection of evaluative devices depends on the goal being evaluated, the conditions under which children are working, and the type of behavior involved. If appraisals are needed on the behavioral level, direct observation may be used. Thus, if the teacher desires insight into the use of concepts, attitudes, or group processes, the children should be observed in discussion, dramatic play, construction, or similar situations in which concepts and attitudes are being used. The ways in which children use concepts and attitudes may be recorded in anecdotal records, a behavior journal, or a specially prepared recording form. If, on the other hand, the teacher must determine the accuracy of concepts or the attitudes of children toward certain objects or persons, use may be made of a simple concept test or attitude questionnaire.

This is not to imply that a single device should be used exclusively to evaluate a given purpose. Observation may be used continuously even though checklists, ratings, or tests are employed. A combination of devices is generally better than a single device. The important point is to decide on the kind of evidence needed, and then to select and use those devices that will secure it. For example, in a social studies workshop directed by the writer, one group proposed the following for evaluating various outcomes, recognizing that others might be added to each category as special needs arose:

Critical Thinking. Standardized tests, observation, group discussion, checklists, charts.

Attitudes. Questionnaires, checklists, scale of beliefs, observation, anecdotal records, recordings, discussion, individual interviews.

Interests. Observation, diaries and logs, interest inventories and checklists, questionnaires, records of activities and use of leisure time.

Concepts. Observation of use, group discussion, tests.

Work-Study Skills. Samples of work, tests, observation of use, checklists, charts, group discussion, interviews.

Functional Information. Tests, charts, discussion, observation, samples of work.

Group Processes. Observation, group discussion, charts, checklists, sociograms.

Insofar as possible, evaluative instruments selected for use in the social studies should meet the following criteria:

Validity. Measure what they purport to measure.
Reliability. Measure consistently and accurately.
Objectivity. Give similar results even though used by different persons.
Practicality. Easy to administer and do not require the expenditure of unreasonable amounts of time and money.
Relatedness. Related to the social studies program (sometimes referred to as curricular validity).
Usefulness. Contribute evidence which can be put to use.
Appropriateness. Related to the level of development of the group with which they will be used and fit into the over-all program of evaluation.
Descriptiveness. Give evidence that describes the behavior of children.

SELF-EVALUATION BY CHILDREN. Self-evaluation leading to increasing self-direction is an essential aspect of evaluation in the social studies. It is a mode of appraisal used throughout life. Through self-evaluation, children gain increasing ability in analyzing their own skills, attitudes, behavior, strengths, needs, and success in achieving purposes. They develop feelings of personal responsibility as they appraise the effectiveness of individual and group efforts. They learn how to face squarely the competences needed in various tasks and to assess their own potentialities and contributions. Their role in group processes can be clarified as they check themselves on cooperatively made criteria. Social learning is sharpened and enriched through self-evaluation because the child himself is participating more extensively in the learning process.

Self-evaluation is a natural process used by children as they engage in significant activities. Children continuously seek better ways of doing things. They express pleasure and satisfaction when improvement is secured, and put forth strenuous effort to secure higher levels of performance. This may be noted as boys and girls engage in play, model making, collecting, planning, self-initiated activities, and group discussion; it is characteristic of purposeful behavior. Self-appraisal is satisfying and rewarding to children because it is a practical means for them to secure immediate insight into strengths they possess and next steps needed to accomplish important goals.

In order to be able to evaluate themselves, children must be guided in the development of a clear conception of purposes to guide their evaluative efforts. This may be done though group discussion based upon needs of significance to the group. Attention also must be given to the cooperative development of checklists, charts, and

rating devices that children can use. This is an essential aspect of self-evaluation, because children must understand the evaluation devices they use, or little value will be derived from their use.

Types of devices commonly used to promote self-evaluation by children include the following:

Group discussions and interviews.
Samples of the child's work gathered throughout the term.
Work standards cooperatively developed by the group and placed on charts.
Checklists made by the individual or group.
Scrapbooks made by each child.
Diaries or logs containing examples of ways in which the child has been cooperative, shown concern for others, and so forth.
Recordings of discussion, reporting, singing, and so forth.
Graphs kept by each child.

EVALUATIVE EVIDENCE ORGANIZED TO FACILITATE INTERPRETATION. Considerable care needs to be given to interpretation of evidence gathered through evaluation. A large number of factors must be considered, since single measures have little meaning. For example, evidence secured by means of anecdotal records and checklists has much greater value when the child's mental status, level of achievement, previous difficulties, and home background are known. Because no one measure is adequate to appraise social learning, each bit of evidence should become a part of a more complete picture of the child's development.

Information should be summarized in a form that can be easily interpreted; the form, depending upon its purpose, may vary. If a picture of the status of children in a class is needed, a list may be prepared giving each pupil's name with related data summarized in tabular form. If information on attitudes or interests is needed on a given child, a simple profile may be developed. In other instances, graphs, charts, summaries of anecdotes, sociograms, or a complete case study may be used. In addition, a cumulative record should be kept for each child in order to develop a composite picture of his growth.

Included in the cumulative record should be space to record information about units of work the child has completed, growth in problem-solving ability, social attitudes, democratic behavior, skill in group work, interest in the social studies, and types of activity in which the child shows strengths and types in which he needs help.

When such information is included, subsequent teachers can make more effective plans for the child's continuous growth.

All too frequently significant evidence related to the social studies is left out of cumulative records. It this has occurred in a given school system, steps should be taken to add pertinent sections related to social learning when the record is revised.

INTERPRETATION OF EVALUATION MADE IN TERMS OF CHILD'S DEVELOPMENT. Each child has his own rate of growth and development. His uniqueness, personality, background, level of achievement, interests, problems, and needs must be reckoned with in all phases of appraisal. The child's growth to increasingly higher levels of behavior (not merely his status in the group or his position with reference to national norms) should be the concern of each teacher. It is unrealistic and impractical to set up arbitrary standards for all children.

Norms are helpful, however, as a frame of reference for considering the achievement of an individual or of a group. If a bright child falls far below the average, this fact suggests that the reason for the deviation should be studied. If a given group "deviates from the norm," the reasons for the deviation should be investigated. In all instances, the first question is, "Why do deviations exist?" not, "What shall we do to get them up to the norm?" After the reasons for the deviations are determined and needs of the child, or group, are established, then steps can be taken to provide those learning experiences most significant to the individual or the group.

EVALUATIVE EVIDENCE PUT TO USE. Evidence gathered by the teacher or by the children through self-evaluation should be used to improve learning experiences. Group evaluation in the classroom should reveal next steps, needs for materials, new sources of ideas, and improved standards of work. Over-all evaluation of the effectiveness of the program should lead to clarification of goals and improved usage of methods, materials and evaluative techniques. Conferences with parents and interpretation of the program are other illustrative uses of evaluative evidence. Evaluation that does not lead to improvement is of little value; it is another form of busy-work.

TECHNIQUES OF EVALUATION

As mentioned in the discussion of basic principles of evaluation, a variety of techniques and devices is used in a complete program of evaluation. In this section, attention is given to several techniques in order to illustrate their use in the social studies.

OBSERVATION BY THE TEACHER. No technique of evaluation is more common in the elementary school than observation by the teacher. Day-to-day observation of children gives a developmental picture of growth that cannot be secured in any other way. It is especially effective in the social studies because of the varied types of experiences provided in the program. Children themselves create new and different situations in which learning may be observed, such as forming groups, meeting new problems, and locating new sources of information. The teacher may create other situations in which specific concepts, attitudes, and skills may be observed; their carry-over to out-of-school enterprises also may be noted. The actual behavior of children in novel situations—the goal of the experienced evaluator—thus becomes the focal point of evaluation.

Possible uses of observation for evaluative purposes are as varied and numerous as the types of experiences provided in the social studies. The teacher may secure evaluative evidence by listening to discussions, oral reading, dramatic play, comments about objects or persons, questions, and spontaneous expression during construction or on excursions. By watching children at work and at play, evidence may be

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Observation by the teacher is an effective technique of evaluation. How might some of the charts presented in this and preceding chapters be used as guides for observation?

secured regarding interests, attitudes, concern for others, group processes, use of time and materials, use of skills, physical ability, emotional adjustment, attentiveness, persistence, ability to carry out directions, and acceptance of responsibility. No evaluative technique offers as many immediate and practical applications as does directed observation.

In using observation as an evaluative device, teachers must recognize the fact that similar types of behavior may reveal different kinds of learning. Different purposes, needs, and backgrounds produce different responses. One child may work industriously when a problem arises because he grasps its significance, whereas another may do so because he fears the consequences of not working industriously. Some children offer to help others because they are growing in cooperative skills, while others offer help because they want to "move in on" another's activity. Some children may accept a given responsibility eagerly to avoid another more important one, whereas some accept it because it is in line with significant purposes. The teacher can gain competence in meeting these problems by knowing each child's background and by becoming a skillful observer.

Checklists are helpful guides to observation. They should be specific, descriptive of desirable behavior, and easy to use. They may be used as an over-all guide in many situations, or they may be applied specifically to the child's behavior in planning, discussion, play, research, or construction. Checklist No. 1 is illustrative; others are presented in later sections of this chapter.

Needs for charts, rating devices, and other evaluative instruments which children can use in self-evaluation may be discovered through teacher observation. For example, after noting specific needs and problems in a discussion, one teacher guided the class in the development of a chart that listed these points:

1. Stick to the topic.
2. Be brief so that others may have a turn.
3. Speak so all can hear.
4. Give turns to others.
5. Listen to others.

The effectiveness of observation as an evaluative device may be improved by the utilization of the following suggestive guidelines. Others should be added as skill is gained in observational techniques.

1. Note little things that may have great value in understanding the child's behavior.

Concern for Others

Note: Check each child two or three times during the term to determine if growth has taken place.

School _____

Date _____

Behavior to be observed	Names of Children									
Is sensitive to needs and problems of others										
Helps others meet needs and solve problems										
Willingly shares ideas and materials										
Accepts suggestions and help										
Makes constructive suggestions										
Sticks to group plans and decisions										
Works courteously and happily with others										
Gives encouragement to others										
Respects the property of others										
Enjoys group work										
Thanks others for help										
Commends others for contributions										

Checklist No. 1

2. Be alert to the uniqueness of each child and to his creative contributions.
3. Look for constructive, improved behavior; avoid fault-finding.
4. Do not assume that similar expressions of behavior indicate the same learning for all children.
5. Be cognizant of your own feelings and prejudices.
6. Be sensitive to the halo effect, since some characteristics may not be related to others.
7. Develop and use specific observational guides to appraise specific aspects of behavior.
8. Make necessary records while the evidence is fresh in mind.
9. Record what actually happened, not your reaction to it.
10. Use observation to secure evidence on many different types of learning, not on conduct alone.

GROUP DISCUSSION. In social studies programs, group discussions, in which children evaluate work periods, dramatic play, research activities, and specific problems as they arise, are widely used. As pointed out in Chapter 6, which discussed group processes, evaluation through group discussion is one of the most effective devices for appraising growth in the social studies. All members of the group can participate, charts and checklists can be developed, attention can be given to problems as they arise, specific instances of behavior can be considered, and cooperative and continuous appraisal can be carried on. The essence of group evaluative discussion is constructive consideration of needs and problems of the group. Emphasis should be given to contributions of individuals and committees. Negative comments should tactfully be redirected toward constructive suggestions for improvement. Attention should be focused on the job to be done, ways to help each other, and next steps that should be taken to achieve stated goals (for specific techniques, see Chapter 6).

Many teachers find it helpful to raise specific questions during discussion when various learnings are being evaluated. Clues as to types of questions to raise may be noted as children engage in research activities, use the library, work in committees, use audio-visual resources, engage in dramatic play and construction, or participate in other activities. *How* and *why* questions, which bring children's thinking to bear upon causes, effects, and reasons involved in various situations, should be utilized as well as *what*, *when*, and *where* questions. Questions should be directly related to major purposes of the unit of work underway at the moment. For example, in the primary grades

questions related to home, school, and community might include the following: How do we share at home? What jobs (responsibilities) do children have? Parents? Community workers? Who helps us get library books? Or, in later grades when appraising skills in problem solving: Where can we find out about this? How shall we share what we find out? Why must all ideas be considered? How shall we put our ideas to use? Or, when evaluating map-reading skills: How can we use the scale of miles? How can we find rivers? Lakes? Highlands? Questions such as these reveal quickly and easily which children are grasping key ideas; they also indicate points of emphasis for the teacher. They make evaluation a part of the instructional program *as it should be.*

Also helpful, particularly in small-group discussions, are questions involving what comes next and what is missing. Questions of this type may be used to assess the child's ability to grasp the wholeness of a situation, predict outcomes, use ideas to solve problems, and to identify himself with others. For example:

1. Cover part of a mural, map, picture, exhibit, chart, diagram, or collection and ask, What is covered? or, What is missing?
2. Remove an object from an exhibit, a part of a jigsaw map, or a part of a model and ask, What is missing?
3. Give incomplete directions for making something, going somewhere, using something, conducting a meeting, or introducing someone, and ask, What is missing?
4. Cover part of a time line, or do part of a demonstration and ask, What comes next?
5. Tell part of an incident or a story and ask, What comes next?
6. Show several pictures in sequence and ask, What comes next?

Another technique which may be used as a part of discussion, or at least may be introduced during discussion, involves the arranging of objects or ideas in sequence or in proper order. For example:

1. Show a set of pictures, or cards with phrases or sentences, and have children arrange them in order.
2. Show pictures that belong in a scene (e.g., airport, farm, stockade) and have children arrange them in relative position.
3. Have children put together, in proper position, parts of maps or large pictures which have been cut to show key ideas such as relative location, relative size, and distance.
4. Have children arrange a floor layout of the community, a farm, or airport.

The discussion which follows such activities is often as revealing of what children have learned as is the manner in which they carry out the activities.

Not to be overlooked as a good source of evaluative evidence are unstructured or free discussions in which children talk over problems and questions of individual and group concern with a minimum of teacher guidance. In such discussion children typically reveal attitudes toward others, concepts, erroneous ideas, reasoning ability, individual needs, and the ability to participate in "group thinking" on their own. Clues gained through careful observation of children in informal discussions can be put to use in planning experiences to improve attitudes, clarify concepts, or to meet other needs.

CHARTS AND CHECKLISTS. Charts are especially helpful in individual and group self-evaluation. They should be cooperatively developed by the group so that clear understanding of their meaning and use will be had by each member of the class.[2] They can be referred to by individuals in the group or used in group discussions in which specific items are being evaluated. Because many examples of charts are given throughout the text, it is unnecessary to include any here.

Checklists are very helpful in evaluating many aspects of social learning. Specific behavior, interests, skills, and concepts have been appraised by means of checklists. Some are designed for use by the teacher; others are used by the children themselves for self-evaluation. Some are used in group work while others are used by each individual in the group. Many checklists are made by the teacher to meet specific needs of the group, while others are planned cooperatively by the class.

The specimen checklists included in this section are practical illustrations of devices that can be developed in social studies classes.

How Do I Work?		
1. Do my own job?	Yes	No
2. Finish each job?	Yes	No
3. Follow directions?	Yes	No
4. Listen attentively?	Yes	No
5. Return materials?	Yes	No
6. Clean up properly?	Yes	No

Checklist No. 2

Am I Courteous?		
1. Listen to others?	Yes	No
2. Take turns?	Yes	No
3. Share materials?	Yes	No
4. Express thanks?	Yes	No
5. Return materials?	Yes	No
6. Work quietly?	Yes	No

Checklist No. 3

[2] For suggestions on chart-making, see pp. 339-343.

Name: _____ Date: _____

School: _____ City: _____

Working Well with Others

How do you work with other students in making plans, discussing problems, making things, looking up ideas, and using materials? All of us need to check ourselves to see if we are doing those things that improve the work of the group. By checking ourselves, we can learn things to do to improve group work. Each person needs to know his good points and shortcomings and consider things to do to improve himself. Read the statements below and place a check in the square that tells how often you do each item in the list.

How Often Do You Do Each Item Listed Below?	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never	?
1. I stick to the job until it is finished.					
2. I take part in many different activities.					
3. I work with everyone in the class.					
4. I am eager to try out new ideas and to work on new problems.					
5. I share materials with others.					
6. I help set up plans and directions and follow them.					
7. I work happily without grumbling or losing my temper.					
8. I give in if my ideas conflict with the best interests of the group.					
9. I consider the rights of others.					
10. I am courteous and use good manners.					

Checklist No. 4

(Checklists Nos. 2, 3, and 4.) All are designed for individual self-evaluation.

INTERVIEWS. Both formal and informal interviews are helpful in appraising social learning. Informal interviews are helpful in talking over immediate problems, determining difficulties, and clarifying group standards and procedures. Formal interviews ordinarily involve the use of checklists, lists of questions, or rating scales, and are carefully planned ahead of time. In either type of interview, the teacher should secure and maintain rapport, be a good listener, guide the interview so that the purpose is achieved, and maintain a sympathetic attitude so that tensions are not created. It is helpful to keep written records of interviews so that they can be added to the child's cumulative record, and thus give a more descriptive picture of his growth.

LOGS AND DIARIES. Both individual and group diaries or logs can be used for evaluation of learning in the social studies. The group-made log contains material dictated by the class; much of it grows out of group planning and evaluation. The individual log is kept by each child and is a record of his activities, such as cooperation, acceptance of responsibility, completing work, or reading a book. Many teachers find it helpful to have group discussions regarding the items to be kept in individual logs; also helpful is the sharing of ideas as the logs are being written. Pictorial logs are usually made in primary grades in order to avoid difficult writing skills.

QUESTIONNAIRES AND INVENTORIES. Questionnaires and inventories are helpful in determining interests, hobbies, attitudes,[3] home background, and other items about individual children. Many teachers make and use informal inventories and questionnaires to meet specific needs as they arise in class. The examples in this section, though incomplete, are illustrative of types that can be made by teachers themselves (Checklists Nos. 5 and 6).

ANECDOTAL RECORDS. Anecdotal records are brief sketches of specific instances of behavior. On page 413 is an excerpt from a behavior journal;[4] it concerns a child who was being given help in working with others.

Because anecdotal records are time consuming to make, every effort should be made to simplify the procedures involved in making

[3] For a good discussion of a simple procedure to use see Stephen M. Corey, "Measuring Attitudes in the Classroom," *Elementary School Journal*, 43:457-461, April, 1943.

[4] For a discussion of behavior journal see W. C. Olson, *Child Development*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1949, pp. 389-398.

them. Some teachers simply keep a page headed by each child's name, making entries during the day or after school. Others simply make brief notes as incidents arise, and drop them in a folder which has

People from Mexico			
Check Each of the Following:	Agree	Disagree	Not Sure
1. People from Mexico are hard workers.			
2. It is fun to listen to Mexican music.			
3. Drawings and paintings from Mexico are beautiful.			
4. Many intelligent people come from Mexico.			

Checklist No. 5

Interests in Transportation			
Do You Like to Do the Following?	Like	Do Not Like	Not Sure
1. To make model planes?			
2. To play with planes?			
3. To talk about planes with friends?			
4. To read stories about pilots?			
5. To visit the airport?			
6. To ride on planes?			
7. To make boats?			
8. To read stories about seamen?			
9. To visit the railroad yards?			

Checklist No. 6

been prepared for each child. Records should be limited to three or four aspects of behavior on which evidence of growth is needed and that cannot be recorded in other ways. Anecdotes are most valuable

when specific instances, such as those listed above, are recorded. Of little value are general comments on traits such as, "Paul cooperated with Mary," or "Peter was unkind in his manner."

BEHAVIOR JOURNAL

Name: Walter Doe Class: Miss Smith Grade: IV

Date	Incidents	Comments
9-21	Did not share the picture with others.	Needs help in carrying out standards.
10-2	Helped to make rules for using materials; shared only a few tools.	Group chart may help. Seems to understand reason for sharing; needs to work with one or two children.
10-19	Discussed need for sharing with others.	Growth in evidence; must place in a group of 3 or 4 as a next step.
11-2	Worked with David in preparing a report.	

CASE STUDIES AND CASE CONFERENCES. Some teachers find it helpful to make a simplified case study of one or two children each year. Pertinent information on such items as home background and previous school experience, and health records, anecdotal records, and data from tests are brought together and analyzed. Such a procedure gives a more complete understanding of a child's growth and has great value for the improvement of guidance and teaching. However, only one or two can be made each year by the teacher because of the time involved.

Case conferences are helpful in analyzing and interpreting the information regarding a child's development. In a case conference, all available evidence is considered by the child's teacher, former teacher or teachers, the principal, and guidance workers. The pooled judgment of several individuals is thereby brought to bear upon specific questions and problems. To be successful, all data about the child should be carefully organized in a form that is easy to use. Descriptive information such as that secured by means of interviews and anecdotal records is needed in addition to test scores.

SOCIOMETRIC TECHNIQUES. Social status and changes in social status can be studied by means of sociometric techniques. By comparing social status scores made early in the term with those made later, the

teacher can determine whether or not progress has been made in securing acceptance of each child. The techniques outlined in Chapter 6 should be used for this purpose. (See pp. 164-166.)

MAKING AND USING TESTS

There are three types of tests that are used in many social studies programs: (1) teacher-prepared tests, (2) teacher-pupil prepared tests, and (3) standardized tests. All of them have a place in a complete program of evaluation, provided that they are selected or constructed in accordance with the needs of the children and the purposes of the program.

TEACHER-PREPARED TESTS. Teacher-made tests are commonly used to determine the child's grasp of concepts, and his skills, needs, strengths, and background of information. The tests facilitate planning, grouping, and specific evaluation of various topics in the program. If they are geared to the needs and problems which arise in a unit, they become an integral part of instruction. Tests made by the teacher are meaningful from the child's point of view and valuable from the teacher's point of view, because they are designed to fit a particular program.

The forms of test items commonly used in informal objective tests are *multiple-choice*, *matching*, *simple-recall*, *completion*, and *alternative-response*. Each of these forms is discussed in detail in the next section in this chapter.

Essay tests are also used in the social studies, particularly in the upper grades when children are sufficiently mature to express themselves by writing responses to essay questions. Essay tests are helpful in securing evidence on attitudes, controversial issues, ability to interpret data, ability to organize and summarize ideas, application of principles, and ability to describe events, persons, and places. The element of free response in them frequently gives clues not secured by objective devices. They should not be too broad in scope nor used to test information alone. Each question should be phrased so that children will know exactly what is expected of them. For example, the question: "How did the Pioneers live in Boonesboro?" is too general. A better question is: "How did the Pioneers in Boonesboro secure food?" In general, essay questions should only be used when children will not experience undue difficulty in handling the writing, spelling, and composition skills involved in answering them. If they will experience great difficulty in writing out the answers, it is better

to use essay form of questions in small-group discussion, or to break the essay question down into small units and prepare objective types of test items.

A valuable new type of test that can be prepared to measure children's ability to apply ideas and draw conclusions is the interpretive, situational, or problem-solving test. A situation, problem, or body of information is presented and children are asked to indicate what they would do, or choose a proposed solution, or make an interpretation. A sentence, paragraph, short selection, map, chart, or current event may be presented and followed by questions or statements in true-false, multiple-choice or one of the other test item forms. Or, the teacher may present a problem orally, or read part of a story, and have the children respond to test items related to it. The following are illustrative:

1. Make a + mark beside the ones you would do when walking to school:

   _____Look both ways before crossing streets.
   _____Run across streets when the yellow light is on.
   _____Throw a ball across the street to a friend.
   _____Walk across a street at the corner when the light is green.
   _____Pick flowers to bring to school.
   _____Watch out for cars backing out of driveways.

2. A class was having a discussion on the duties of a committee chairman. Listed below are suggestions as made by different children. Make a + mark beside the suggestions which you think are good ones for the chairman to do:

   _____Get ideas from all members.
   _____Tell each person what to do.
   _____Ask others to accept his plan.
   _____Urge everyone to do his best.
   _____Ask members to stick to the topic.
   _____Do most of the talking.

3. Children can be asked to study the scale of miles on a map in one of their textbooks, or in a desk atlas. This may be followed by such questions as:

   How far is it in a straight line from New York to San Francisco? _____
   How far is it from the northern boundary of California to the southern boundary? _____

If the ability to interpret and use the legend on a map is to be measured, test items can be made on different map symbols and colors. Or if other phases of map reading are to be appraised, items can be made involving directions, size of states, location of cities, physical features and other facts shown on maps.

4. The following example was based on an incident that arose in a class of ten-year-olds:

   Members of your class are presenting a program to a group of children in another room. A girl near you talks to a friend while the program is going on. Several children are disturbed because they cannot hear the program. What should you do?

   _____Tell the girl that talking is impolite.
   _____Ask the teacher to tell the girl to stop.
   _____Ask the girl to be quiet so others can hear.
   _____Make fun of the girl for talking during a program.

When making situational or interpretive tests care should be taken to present problems that are realistic and challenging to the group. The kind of situation that could be used as a topic for a discussion is usually satisfactory. In fact some teachers base situational tests on topics which have been discussed by the group. By making notes on comments made by children during discussion, it is possible to get leads to plausible answers or responses to include in the test. A variety of item forms should be used. A discussion of different types and how to prepare them is presented in the following section.

PREPARATION OF TEST ITEMS

Several basic guidelines should be kept in mind as test items of various types are prepared. Only the most significant learnings should be appraised; trivial details, obvious answers and material of little value should be avoided. Each item should be clearly worded and written on a level of difficulty appropriate to the group. Textbook wording should be avoided; if not, children will engage in rote memorization and their ability to apply ideas and principles will not be measured. Items which provide an answer to other items should not be included. Also to be avoided are tricky questions, and any item which does not have a definite, specific answer. No clues or suggestions which can be used to figure out the correct answer to an item should be

given. Directions should be clearly written, and space for responses should be arranged to facilitate the writing of answers and scoring. Items of each type should be grouped together in separate sections (*completion*, *true-false*, etc.), and an adequate range of difficulty should be included in each section.

In addition to the foregoing guidelines, specific points must be kept in mind for each form of item. A consideration is given next to the item forms most frequently used in the social studies.

SIMPLE-RECALL. Simple-recall items should be used to measure the child's ability to recall a specific name, place, concept, or date which is of sufficient importance to be memorized. The child must recall the appropriate response rather than identify it from a list of possible answers prepared by the teacher. Questions or statements involving *who*, *when*, *where*, *what*, *how many*, and *how much*, can be presented in oral or written form to measure a variety of specific learnings as shown in the following examples:

What should we say when someone helps us? _____
Who helps us check out library books? _____
Which airport worker tells planes when to land? _____
What is the abbreviation of each of the following States?
Pennsylvania _____ California _____
Oklahoma _____ Tennessee _____

In preparing simple-recall items, the questions should be kept short. Questions are usually easier to prepare and are more meaningful to the child than are statements. Adequate space should be provided at the right for the answers. The items should be framed so that there is only one correct response.

COMPLETION. The completion test is another form of recall; it may be either a sentence or a paragraph in which blanks are provided for the child to fill with words, numbers, or phrases that complete the meaning. For example:

The president during the War of 1812 was *(1)* 1. _____
from the state of *(2)*. 2. _____

Several points must be kept in mind if this type of item is to be used effectively in appraising learning in the social studies:

1. Omit only key words, phrases, or dates; avoid the omission of minor details, common words, or everyday expressions. For example, "The pioneers ate much _____." Many different common words could be used here (food, meat, berries, etc.).

2. Use blanks of uniform size for all responses since children use variations as clues to answers.
3. Avoid textbook phrases and sentences. Use definite statements with omissions which call for only one correct response; if another response is found to be acceptable give credit for it.
4. Avoid the use of *a* and *an* before a blank so that no clues will be given, e.g., "Bill took an _____ from the fruit basket." Apple or orange are possibilities, but banana, pears, plum, or other fruits beginning with a consonant can be ruled out.
5. Avoid the omission of several words in any one statement; if too many words are omitted, it is impossible to get the meaning, e.g., "Jamestown was _____ in the year _____ by _____." If used at all this item should be written: "Jamestown was settled in the year _____."
6. Arrange the test so that answers can be written in spaces at the right as shown in the example at the beginning of this section.

MULTIPLE-CHOICE. This type of item is used more frequently than any other type by professional test makers. It consists of a question or incomplete statement (called the stem) followed by two or more responses. (The correct or best one is the answer, the others are distracters.) The typical procedure is to have the child select the correct response from three to five choices. Variations on this procedure are: (1) select the best answer, (2) select the incorrect answer, and (3) select two or more correct responses.

In the primary grades, children should be asked to underline the correct or best answer so that no difficulty will arise in marking letters or numbers which designate answers.

Directions: Draw a line under the one word that makes the sentence true. Look at all four words and choose the best one. (A variation on this is: "Draw a line through the incorrect words.")

1. Workers in sawmills make
   nails bricks plaster lumber

In later grades numbers or letters may be marked or machine scorable answer sheets may be used successfully by most children.

Directions: After each question are listed four words which might be used to answer the question. Only one of the words is correct or better than any of the others. Make a circle around the letter in front of the word you think is best.

1. From which country did the United States purchase the Lousiana Territory?
   A. England B. Russia C. Spain D. France

If an answer column is provided at the right, the directions should indicate the marking procedure as follows:

Directions: One of the four numbered answers is the best for each exercise. Choose the one you think is best and write its number in the space at the right.

1. Which reference would you use to find the number of people born in Illinois last year?
   (1) an atlas
   (2) an encyclopedia
   (3) an almanac
   (4) a geography
   ..... ( )

The following suggestions have been found to be helpful in making multiple-choice items:

1. Use them to check recognition and discrimination. Use the simple-recall form if the child should be expected to remember a given fact. Use the alternative-response form if there are only two possible answers.
2. Place the major portion of the statement in the introduction or stem, not in the possible answers. Make the stem clear and complete so that the nature of the answer will be known to the pupil. Avoid negative statements in the stem whenever possible as they tend to be confusing.
3. Be sure all possible answers are plausible; absurd options are quickly eliminated by children. Word the incorrect responses as carefully as the correct; make some of them about the same length as the correct response if more than one word is involved.
4. Avoid clues such as words or phrases in the introduction which also appear in the correct answer, or the placing of *a* or *an* at the end of the introduction when the options do not all begin with a vowel or consonant. For example, "A pictogram is an A. illustration B. narrative C. tool D. mural" can easily be answered by associating *an* with the option which begins with a vowel.
5. Phrase all choices so that they are grammatically correct when joined to the introduction; avoid choices that overlap or include each other, e.g.: Last year air travel increased A. less than 10%, B. less than 20%, C. more than 30%, D. more than 50%; place choices at the end of the item; distribute them evenly among answer positions; include at least four choices whenever possible; and keep all choices in the same category—i.e., do not mix persons, places, or things.

6. Arrange the items in groups of five with a double space between groups. Group together items with the same number of choices, i.e., do not mix three choice and four choice items.

MATCHING. Matching items are used to measure the ability to associate events and dates, events and persons, terms and definitions, principles and applications, tools and their uses, pictures and concepts, causes and effects, and the like. They should be used only when there are several pairs of items which are sufficiently homogeneous to require the child to think critically in order to make proper associations.

Fairly simple matchings are used in the primary grades. For example, pictures of household objects such as a refrigerator, stove, or sweeper may be matched with words or phrases that describe each picture. Or parts of sentences or pairs of words may be matched as shown in the two following examples:

1. Draw a line between the two parts of each sentence that belong together.

The farmer keeps baby chickens	in a corral.
The farmer keeps horses	in a pen.
The farmer keeps pigs	in a brooder.

2. Draw a line from each worker to the word which tells what he uses.

carpenter	cement
electrician	lumber
mason	pipe
plumber	wire

Two basic varieties of matching used in later grades involve simple matching as shown in the first example following and classification into categories as shown in the second example.

1. On the space before each of the duties, write the letter of the official responsible for it.

Duties	*Officials*
____1. Collects taxes	A. Assessor
____2. Determines the value of property	B. Clerk
	C. Judge
____3. Keeps records	D. Sheriff
	E. Treasurer

2. On the space before each of the responsibilities, write the letter of the branch of government which carries it out.

Responsibilities	*Branches*
_____1. Makes laws	A. Executive
_____2. Interprets laws	B. Judicial
_____3. Enforces laws	C. Legislative
_____4. Appropriates money	
_____5. Prepares the budget	

Guessing is minimized in the first example shown by providing a surplus of names in the second column; it is minimized in the second example by providing for the use of some responses more than once.

Another form of matching involves the use of maps, diagrams, or pictures which have been lettered to show significant features. For example, a map of the United States may be marked with large letters to show regions in which different types of production are carried on. The map is placed in the front of the room and children are asked to study it and then write the letters on spaces before matching questions such as the following:

_____1. Which area is noted for steel production?
_____2. Which area is noted for cotton production?

The following suggestions should be used when matching items are prepared:

1. Place related material in each matching exercise; do not mix men and events with other associations such as causes and effects.
2. Keep the number of items small (5-7); provide extra responses (2-3) in the second column, or permit certain responses to be used more than once in order to minimize guessing.
3. Arrange the items in the first column in random order; arrange those in the second column in alphabetical, chronological, or some other reasonable order.
4. Keep the columns close together and on the same page so that children will not become confused looking back and forth or turning the page to check matching pairs.
5. Use consistent form so that items in each column can be associated without difficulty. If parts of sentences are to be matched, be sure that no grammatical clues are introduced.

ALTERNATIVE-RESPONSE. Items in this category may be written in several forms: true-false, yes-no, right-wrong, correct-incorrect, and two option multiple choice. They may be declarative or presented in written form. Carefully constructed alternative-response items can be used to appraise interests, attitudes, misconceptions, superstitions,

and understanding of principles and generalizations. They should be used when there are only two logical responses such as north or south, right or left, larger or smaller, and the like. Examples of several different forms follow:

1. The true-false variety is simply a statement. The area of Brazil is greater than the area of the United States. T F
2. The yes-no variety consists of a question. Do you have the right to break a rule made by your class if you did not vote for it? Y N
3. The cluster variety is a statement with several completions.
   Agriculture is profitable in the south because
   1. many workers are available. T F
   2. the land is mountainous. T F
   3. there are many forests. T F
   4. there is a long growing season. T F

To be avoided are items for which there are more than two plausible responses such as:

The pioneers came to Sutter's Fort on the Wilderness Trail.

The multiple-choice form should be used in this instance since the Oregon Trail, Mohawk Trail, and California Trail could be used as other choices.

Alternative-response items may be used in a variety of ways. Places on a map can be marked by letters or numbers and children can be asked to write T or F in response to statements regarding what is grown, what conditions exist and the like. Comprehension of a topic can be appraised in a similar fashion after children have read a given selection, or heard a report, or seen a film. More than mere knowledge can be tested by making items which require application of concepts such as:

If Iowa were in a mountainous region, its corn crop would be larger. T F

The ability to make comparisons can be tested by such an item as:

Make a + beside each of the items found both in Mexico and California:

_____oil _____forests

_____gold _____(etc.)

The ability to read and interpret maps can be measured by preparing items based on textbook or wall maps.

It is farther from New York to San Francisco than from New York to Shannon. T F

The ability to describe conditions or activities can be measured by such an item as:

Make a + beside each of the objects listed below which pioneers took on hunting trips:

_____blankets _____canned food
_____kettles _____(etc.)

The following suggestions are recommended for use in making alternative-response items:

1. Include an equal number of true and false statements; be sure the true statements are not consistently longer than the false statements; arrange items in random order.
2. Avoid the use of specific determiners, e.g., items containing *alone*, *all*, *no*, *none*, *never*, *always* and the like are usually false, while items containing *generally*, *should*, *may* and the like are usually true.
3. Be sure each statement is definitely true or false; avoid ambiguous terms such as *few*, *many*, and *important*. Place the crucial element in the statement in the main part of the sentence, not in a phrase or subordinate clause. Avoid the use of double negatives.
4. Make each item short and specific. Avoid the use of unfamiliar or figurative language.
5. Simplify the marking of correct responses (and scoring) by placing T and F (or Y and N for *yes-no*) in a column at the right as shown in the examples above. For scoring, make a stencil (with holes punched in the position for correct responses) which can be placed over the answer column. If the items are dictated, or no answer column has been provided, instruct the children to write + for true and O for false which are easier to score than T and F or + and −.

Teacher-Pupil Prepared Tests. Tests cooperatively made under the guidance of the teacher are valuable evaluative devices. Children gain increased appreciation of the reasons for testing, gain insight into the selection of key ideas, secure practice in analyzing material, and grow in the ability to express themselves with precision. By helping to make tests, children also clarify purposes and see some of the relationships between the program and testing.

Tests designed by children should focus upon specific problems in the unit. Each item should be accompanied by the answer and its source. Although the same rules of test construction that the teacher herself uses should be applied, reasonable expectancies must be set for each group. Children can be guided to see the importance of not copying items from the book, not using "give-away" terms, and sticking to the topic. Major outcomes should be sharpened thinking, improved precision in expression, and improved self-evaluation and understanding of the topics being studied; the development of perfect test items is not the major purpose of constructing tests. Through group discussion after group-made tests have been given, suggestions and comments may be brought out that will lead to further improvement.

STANDARDIZED TESTS. Standardized tests are available for the evaluation of concepts, information, word-study skills and critical thinking. They are helpful in determining growth over a given period of time, in planning curriculum revision, for group and individual guidance, in appraising methods and materials, and for survey and research purposes. They should not be used as a basis for marking, promotion, rating of teachers, child-to-child or school-to-school comparisons, or for rating a school system in terms of national norms; the solution of these problems requires a wider range of data.

Standardized achievement tests should be recognized as only one facet of the total program of evaluation. Reasonable expectancies should be employed for each child and each group on the basis of mental ability, growth rate, past achievement, and pertinent background factors. If tests are given early in the year, they may be used to indicate both individual and group needs, and thereby improve planning. Testing should extend over several grades in order to give a developmental picture. Many school systems find it helpful to give tests at the beginning of Grades IV, VII, and IX, in order to facilitate planning in the elementary, junior, and senior high school.[5]

In selecting standardized tests in the social studies, several criteria should be considered in addition to reliability, validity, objectivity, expense, and ease of administration. Questions of prime importance are:

> Is this test related to the social studies topics being considered?
> Does this test cover the key learnings of importance to the children for whom it is intended?

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[5] John U. Michaelis, *op. cit.*

Is the level of difficulty appropriate for the children?
Is this test the best available one for this purpose?
If norms are to be used, are they suitable in terms of local needs and conditions?
Can this test be interpreted easily in light of other information available?
Does this test fit into the total pattern of evaluation?

SOURCES OF TESTS. Many standardized tests are available for use in the social studies. Some of them are included in general achievement tests, while others are available as separate tests. In order to keep an up-to-date list, it is helpful to maintain a collection in a central location for reference use by teachers and other school workers. An excellent source of information is *The Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook*, by O. K. Buros (New Brunswick, N. J., Rutgers University, 1954). This yearbook reviews tests published in recent years. Organizations such as the following publish many tests for use in the elementary school, and catalogues and specimen sets can be secured from them:

1. Bureau of Educational Research and Service, University of Iowa, Iowa City.
2. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.
3. California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif.
4. Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minn.
5. Houghton-Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass.
6. Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.
7. World Book Company, New York.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Discuss practical ways in which each of the basic guidelines to effective evaluation presented in the first part of this chapter may be used in the social studies. Which do you believe need greater emphasis at the present time?

2. In what ways can you provide for self-evaluation by children in a unit of work you are planning?

3. Examine a cumulative record being utilized in a school system in your region at the present time. What provision is made for the recording of information on social learning? What additional provisions, if any, are needed?

4. How can you use observation as a technique of evaluation in a unit you are planning? Discussion? Anecdotal records? Interviews? Logs and diaries? Case studies? Case conferences? Sociometric techniques?

5. Prepare a sample chart, a sample checklist, and a brief questionnaire on interests that you might use in a unit you are planning to teach. Discuss them critically with fellow students or teachers.

6. Prepare several objective type test items in each form discussed in this chapter which you might use in a unit you are planning to teach. Discuss them critically with fellow students or teachers.

7. Examine a standardized achievement test such as the *Iowa Test of Basic Work-Study Skills*, Houghton-Mifflin Co., Boston; *California Tests in Social and Related Sciences*, California Test Bureau, Los Angeles; or *Stanford Achievement Test* (section on social studies), World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. What types of social learning are measured? How might the test be used in a complete program of evaluation?

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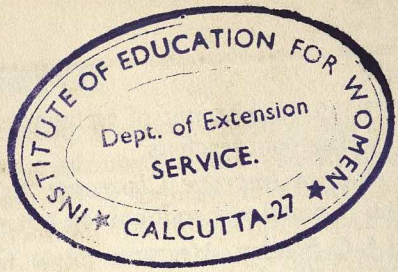

16 EVALUATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

Evaluation of the social studies program should be carried on as continuously and persistently as evaluation of the child's learning. In fact, the appraisal of outcomes of learning experiences in the social studies inevitably leads to evaluation of the program. Such evaluation, however, is sometimes neglected because comprehensive criteria are not used.

It is the purpose of this final chapter to set forth concisely and briefly selected criteria in question form that can be used to appraise the over-all program. Obviously, criteria must be adapted and changed to meet local needs and conditions. The list in this chapter has been developed in full recognition of this fact. If it stimulates thinking and discussion regarding the improvement of the social studies in elementary schools it will have served its purpose.

In the preceding chapter attention was given to evaluation of the child's learning in the social studies. Basic principles of evaluation and techniques that can be used to secure evaluative evidence were discussed. Many of the same basic principles of evaluation apply in this instance. For example, evaluation of the social studies program must be continuous, cooperative, comprehensive, and systematic. However, the major emphasis in this chapter is upon the program itself and the degree to which it meets certain criteria. The criteria are derived from each chapter in the text and are stated as questions to be answered as a given program is appraised. Thus, this final chapter also serves as a brief summary of key ideas in the text.

It should be emphasized that the questions suggested as criteria are not static and final. A given group may wish to add to them or alter them in terms of local needs and conditions. However, they do suggest major points that appear to be basic in a well-designed social studies program.

In working with various groups to evaluate the social studies the writer has found that no single procedure or order of evaluation is best for all situations. For example, it cannot be recommended that all groups start with the questions in the section related to functions of the social studies and then proceed down the list through the other categories. While such a procedure may be feasible in one situation, it may be wise to consider other sections first in another situation. Thus, one group started with a consideration of unit-planning and organization of the social studies because of critical problems in the local school system. Later, other categories were considered as real needs arose for their use. Similarly the amount of time given to various criteria may vary from school to school and from teacher to teacher.

There are, however, a few general guidelines that are helpful in evaluating the social studies program. First, the group (or individual) should start with problems that are of greatest concern. These problems should be explored carefully so that relationships to other problems are clearly discerned. In due course of time all of the categories should be considered. Cooperative study, discussion, and sharing of ideas are essential. A sincere attempt should be made to detect weaknesses and problem-areas as early as possible. The various checklists and guidelines in the text should, of course, be used to supplement the criteria. In fact, a given chapter should be received carefully prior to use of the criteria taken from that chapter. The teacher should play a major role in the evaluation of the program, since such a procedure brings much in-service growth. The prime question that should guide an appraisal of the program is: "What changes can be made that will promote the learning of the child?"

The criteria are organized to facilitate analysis and discussion. The general design of the statement is somewhat similar to that proposed by Caswell.[1] Key questions are listed to be checked in terms of *yes*, *?*, or *no*. A check under *yes* signifies adequacy in every respect, while a check under *no* indicates that little or no attention has been given to the item and that immediate action is needed. A check under *?* indicates that the matter needs further study or that the present status is not clear. Notes or questions regarding various phases of the program should be listed under *comments*. At the bottom of each category there is a space indicated for listing critical needs, and spaces for noting specific practices have been indicated within the statement.

[1] H. L. Caswell, *Education in the Elementary School*. New York: American Book Company, 1942, pp. 67-72.

CHARACTERISTICS TO BE EVALUATED	ADEQUATE			COMMENTS
	Yes	?	No	
I. The Social Studies in American Democracy				
A. Has the role of the social studies been clearly defined?				
B. Are the contributions of the social studies to over-all purposes clear?				
C. Is attention given to the development of:				
1. Attitudes and appreciations?				
2. Concepts, understanding, and functional information?				
3. Critical thinking and problem-solving skills?				
4. Democratic values and behavior?				
D. List other criteria and critical needs in this area:				
1.				
2.				
E. Prepare a summary statement of the unique role of the social studies.				
II. Principles and Patterns of Organization				
A. Is a unified approach utilized in planning and developing experiences?				
B. Are social functions and life situations used in defining the scope?				
C. Are other areas of the curriculum drawn upon and utilized to improve problem solving in the social studies?				
D. Is the sequence of units related to child development and community living?				
E. Are legal provisions being met?				
F. Is the program based on a cooperatively developed point of view?				

CHARACTERISTICS TO BE EVALUATED	ADEQUATE			COMMENTS
	Yes	?	No	
G. Is the program flexible and subject to continuous revision?				
H. List other criteria and critical needs in this area:				
1.				
2.				
III. Child Development and the Social Studies				
A. Are implications of child growth characteristics utilized in developing the program?				
B. Are developmental tasks of children considered?				
C. Are interests capitalized upon?				
D. Are growth sequences considered in planning?				
E. List other criteria and critical needs in this area:				
1.				
2.				
IV. Improving the Child's Learning				
A. Is the program based on an understanding of each child's capabilities, needs, and backgrounds?				
B. Are a variety of child-study techniques used to study children? List those that are used:				
1.				
2.				
C. Is it recognized that multiple learnings grow out of each experience?				
D. Is attention given to emotional satisfactions?				
E. Is the program related to common basic needs of children?				

CHARACTERISTICS TO BE EVALUATED	ADEQUATE			COMMENTS
	Yes	?	No	
F. Is each child recognized as a unique learner?				
G. Is a stimulating environment provided?				
H. Do the children actively participate in the program?				
I. Are a variety of experiences provided? List those that are: 1. 2.				
J. Do the children grasp the relationships between activities and purposes?				
K. Is the child's self-concept considered?				
L. Is a democratic atmosphere maintained?				
M. Is specific attention given to attitude and concept-building?				
N. List other criteria and critical needs in this area: 1. 2.				
V. Planning Units in the Social Studies				
A. Are units selected to meet interests and needs of the group?				
B. Are purposes clearly stated?				
C. Are several types of initiation considered? List those that are used: 1. 2.				
D. Are problems and needs in the unit childlike and interesting?				
E. Are varied materials and activities related to each problem? List those most frequently used: 1.				

CHARACTERISTICS TO BE EVALUATED	ADEQUATE			COMMENTS
	Yes	?	No	
2.				
F. Are plans made for evaluation throughout the unit?				
G. Are available resources listed?				
H. Do teachers engage in cooperative unit-planning?				
I. Are units revised and kept up to date?				
J. List other criteria and critical needs in this area:				
1.				
2.				
VI. Using Effective Group Processes				
A. Are the values of democratic group processes clearly envisioned?				
B. Have problem-solving techniques been clearly defined?				
C. Are effective discussion techniques utilized and approved?				
D. Are group planning and evaluation utilized?				
E. Are groupings flexible and changing in order to meet various needs?				
F. Does the room arrangement promote group work?				
G. Is there interaction among all members of the group?				
H. Are democratic social attitudes being developed and used?				
I. Are group processes evaluated by the group?				
J. List other criteria and critical needs in this area:				
1.				
2.				

CHARACTERISTICS TO BE EVALUATED	ADEQUATE			COMMENTS
	Yes	?	No	
VII. An Overview of Instructional Resources				
A. Has a sound point of view been developed regarding the place of instructional resources in the program?				
B. Are procedures established for selection of resources?				
C. Are guidelines established for utilization of resources?				
D. List other criteria and critical needs in this area:				
1.				
2.				
VIII. Studying the Community and Using Community Resources				
A. Is the community viewed as a laboratory of learning?				
B. Has the community been studied to determine available resources?				
C. Are varied resources being utilized?				
1. Field trips?				
2. Resource visitors?				
3. Individuals to interview?				
4. Service projects?				
5. Field studies?				
6. Others?				
D. Are guidelines established for utilization of resources?				
E. Is there cooperation with community organizations?				
F. Are service projects carried out?				
G. Is the community concept expanding as children develop?				
H. List other criteria and critical needs in this area:				

CHARACTERISTICS TO BE EVALUATED	ADEQUATE			COMMENTS
	Yes	?	No	
1.				
2.				
IX. Audio-Visual Materials				
A. Are varied audio-visual materials available? List those that are:				
1.				
2.				
B. Are charts, maps and other resources made to meet special needs?				
C. Are sound criteria established for the selection and production of materials?				
D. Are sound guidelines established for their utilization?				
E. Are they used as integral elements in the problem-solving process?				
F. List other criteria and critical needs in this area:				
1.				
2.				
X. Reading and Literature in the Social Studies				
A. Are varied types of reading materials available? List those that are:				
1.				
2.				
B. Are criteria and procedures for selection established and used?				
C. Do children participate in selections?				
D. Have the relationships between the social studies and the reading program been defined?				
E. Are varied procedures used in sharing and enjoying literary selections? List those that are:				
1.				

CHARACTERISTICS TO BE EVALUATED	ADEQUATE			COMMENTS
	Yes	?	No	
2.				
F. List other criteria and critical needs in this area:				
1.				
2.				
XI. Construction and Processing of Materials				
A. Are the values and limitations of these activities clearly envisioned?				
B. Is attention given to their utilization in unit planning? List specific activities that have been used:				
1.				
2.				
C. Are simple tools available for use?				
D. Are appropriate materials available?				
E. Are reality and authenticity maintained?				
F. Are any deviations clearly explained?				
G. Are sound guidelines used to plan and develop these activities?				
H. List critical needs for improvement:				
1.				
2.				
XII. Dramatic Representation and Rhythmic Expression				
A. Are values of dramatic representation clearly defined?				
B. Are the differences between various types of dramatic representation clear?				
C. Are possible uses kept in mind in unit-planning? List examples that have been used:				
1.				
2.				

CHARACTERISTICS TO BE EVALUATED	ADEQUATE			COMMENTS
	Yes	?	No	
D. Are sound guidelines used for developing experiences in this area?				
E. Is dramatic representation related to other experiences?				
F. List other criteria and critical needs in this area:				
1.				
2.				
XIII. Evaluation of Learning in the Social Studies				
A. Is evaluation carried out in terms of all the purposes of the social studies?				
B. Is evaluation a continuous process?				
C. Is evaluation an integral part of instruction?				
D. Is evaluation a cooperative process?				
E. Is evaluative evidence secured in a variety of situations?				
F. Are many devices used to gather evaluative evidence? List those that are used:				
1.				
2.				
G. Are checklists, tests and other devices made to meet special needs?				
H. Are criteria used to select tests and other instruments? List those that are used:				
1.				
2.				
I. Are provisions made for self-evaluation by children?				
J. Are cumulative records used?				
K. Are interpretations made in light of the child's level of development?				

CHARACTERISTICS TO BE EVALUATED	ADEQUATE			COMMENTS
	Yes	?	No	
L. Is evaluative evidence put to use to improve the child's learning?				
M. List other criteria and critical needs in this area:				
1.				
2.				
XIV. Evaluation of the Social Studies Program				
A. Is evaluation of the program carried out in the light of definite criteria?				
B. Is the program appraised continuously?				
C. Are cooperative steps taken to assure thorough appraisal?				
D. Are all phases of the program appraised over a given period of time?				
E. Are changes made in the light of evaluative evidence?				
F. List critical needs in this area:				
1.				
2.				

This final chapter has served a twofold purpose. First of all, it has presented a summary of the key ideas developed in each chapter. Secondly, it has incorporated this summary in a checklist for evaluating the social studies program. It is the writer's sincere hope that, through the use of this checklist and the other material in this book, social studies programs will be improved. It is his further hope that improved social studies programs will lead boys and girls in America's elementary schools to increasingly higher levels of democratic citizenship.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Discuss the "characteristics to be evaluated" with fellow students or teachers. Which do you believe to be in need of greatest attention in

elementary schools at the present time? Which are being met adequately? Which are the most difficult to appraise? The least difficult?

2. What additional items should be listed under "characteristics to be evaluated?" Which should be broken down into greater detail? Why must occasional reference be made to pertinent chapters in the text?

3. Why should systematic appraisal be made of the social studies program? Why should teachers participate?

4. Apply the checklist to a program with which you are acquainted. If possible, do it in cooperation with fellow students or teachers. Prepare a summary statement of major needs and changes that should be given immediate consideration.

5. Discuss with others a possible plan of action that might be instituted to bring about the changes proposed in No. 4 above. Give major attention to the role of teachers in making changes and improvements.

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APPENDIX

UNIT OF WORK ON THE FARM

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UNIT OF WORK ON EARLY AMERICAN LIFE

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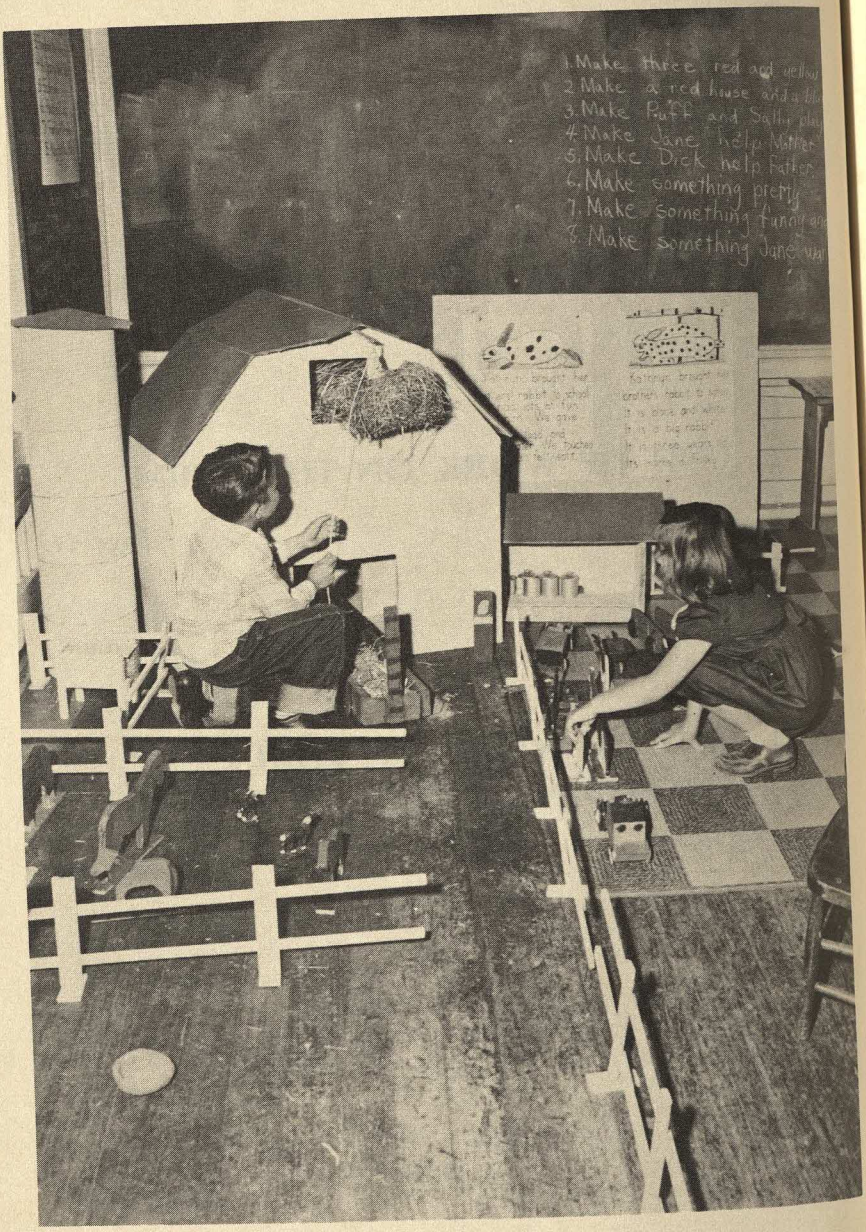
1. Make three red and yellow
2. Make a red house and a blu
3. Make Puff and Sally play
4. Make Jane help Mother
5. Make Dick help Father
6. Make something pretty
7. Make something funny
8. Make something Jane can

Unit of Work on the Farm

PREPARED BY a Joint Committee of Elementary Teachers, Supervisors, and Curriculum Coordinators

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Mrs. Ethel M. Hildreth
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UNDER THE DIRECTION OF Miss Ruth Newby, Elementary Curriculum Coordinator

ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM DEPARTMENT
Pasadena City Schools *Pasadena, California*

FOREWORD

Children who grow up in an urban society need help to gain a feeling of stability which comes from close and realistic experiences with the out-of-doors. The unit—"The Farm"—should help provide such first-hand experiences for the children of Pasadena if it is to be successful as a teaching aid.

We hope that the teachers who use this unit will find it helpful in stimulating the development of concepts concerning the out-of-doors and rural life in America.

WILLARD E. GOSLIN
Superintendent of Schools

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Part 4. Supplement On Suggested Room Arrangements . . . 478

NOTE: *The original unit contained other excellent supplements on Poetry, Suggested Daily Programs, Excursion Techniques, Dramatic Play Techniques, and Clay Techniques.*

Unit of Work on the Farm

I. *General Purposes*

A. To provide a series of related experiences in order to give each child an awareness of his place in a well-balanced school program.

B. To provide an opportunity for each child to learn to work and play democratically in a group, both as a leader and as a follower.

C. To help the child become more intelligently self-directive in solving his own problems.

D. To help develop within the child responsibility toward himself and others.

E. To help each child to feel secure within himself, so that he may become a happy, wholesome individual.

F. To provide opportunity for the child to participate in all types of functional experiences and in the use of all types of materials.

G. To provide an opportunity for the child to express himself creatively.

II. *Specific Purposes*

A. To provide the child with experiences and activities that increase the understanding of farm life and its relationship to his own life.

B. To help the child understand how farm life has changed due to modern developments, such as electricity, machinery, specialization of work in a modern industrial society, and modes of living today.

C. To understand the responsibilities of family life on a farm in contrast to family life in the city.

D. To help the child develop an appreciation and an awareness of the value of farm life.

E. To help the child understand how food reaches his home from the farms.

F. To develop an interest in the relationship between conserving natural resources and farm life.

G. To bring about an understanding of, and an appreciation for the natural sciences in an agricultural environment.

H. To provide an opportunity to participate in purposeful reading, arithmetic, and language arts experiences as related to farm life.

I. To provide many opportunities for first-hand experiences, such as using and experimenting with materials, taking excursions, and using audio-visual materials.

J. To stimulate creative expression through art, music, rhythms, stories, and poems.
K. To understand the need for safe and healthful living on the farm.

III. *Initiation of the Unit*
The environment should be stimulating and challenging. The room is a combination laboratory-workshop and a pleasant living space for many kinds of activities and experiences. Extend the classroom experiences and activities outdoors whenever possible. Some suggested ways to initiate the unit are:

A. Through a stimulating environment that may include:
1. Attractive pictures of farm life. Sometimes a thought-provoking question as a caption under a picture may be added.
2. An attractive library center featuring interesting books on farm life and activities.
3. A center of artistic interest in the room that may feature flowers, greenery, weeds, seed pods, animal figurines, pictures, grains, and fruit branches.
4. Many centers of interest to stimulate expression as areas for:
   a. Wood and tools
   b. Clay
   c. Natural science
   d. Attractive reading games
   e. Art
   f. Music
5. Small trucks, boxes, wooden animals, and people.

B. Through neighborhood walks to:
1. Observe different types of soil, trees, and flowers.
2. Homes of children who might have ducks, chickens, a pony, pigeons, or goats.
3. A dairy or truck farm.

C. Through children's experiences and contributions such as:
1. Discussions of farm life fostered by:
   a. Experiences on farms
   b. Newspaper and magazine articles and pictures
   c. Exhibits of farm products such as corn, seed packets, and fruits
2. Dramatic play of farm life.*
3. Books, pictures, and records about farm life.

D. Through other related activities such as:
1. The showing of slides or films followed by a discussion and second showing.†
2. A brief review of phases of market life that might include:
   a. Discussion of:

---

* See "Dramatic Play Techniques," in original unit.
† See Bibliography: Audio-Visual, in original unit.

(1) How the retail market obtains food from wholesale markets, dairies, bakeries, and canneries
(2) How the wholesale market secures products from the farms and dairies

b. Drawing pictures of food enroute to wholesale market from the farms
c. Singing market songs
d. Seeing a film that has been a part of the market experiences

3. Make such charts with the group as:
a. Questions to determine what we want to learn about the farm. Statements of summary may be added under the questions as the study progresses, as:

Why is a farm so important?
(1) It provides us with food.
(2) It provides leather for shoes, wool for clothing.
(3) Special farms might give us rubber for tires, and so forth.

What kinds of farms do you know about?
(1) Dairy farms
(2) Poultry ranches
(3) Walnut groves
(4) Citrus groves
(5) Cattle ranch
(6) General farm (many animals, trees, plants)

What will we have on our farm?
Cows, horses, sheep, chickens, pigs, dogs, cat.
Vegetables.
Fruit trees and nut trees.
Buildings.

Will our farm be one of long ago or a modern one?
A modern, progressive farm.

What would a farmer of long ago do?
He would plow with a horse.
He would check fences on horseback.
He would go to town in a horse and buggy.

What would a modern farmer do?
He would plow with a tractor.
He might check his fences with a plane.
He would go to town by automobile.
He would spray and dust his fields with a plane or helicopter, and so forth.

b. Begin a chart of words especially pertaining to a study of farm life that will help in writing.

E. Suggested room arrangements. See pp. 478-480.
F. Suggested programs. See samples in original unit.

IV. *Development of the Unit*

The order in which attention is directed to various activities is not in any sequential arrangement. Each section is interwoven into the other in actual use with groups. The order is not of great importance as long as there is interest and transition from one experience to another. A group might give more emphasis to one phase than another, but should develop all phases to some extent.

A. TO FIND OUT ABOUT FARMS

1. To Find Out Types of Farms

Content

General farm contrasted with special farm as to: (1) Crops, (2) How worked, (3) Animals

Special farms: (1) Citrus groves, (2) Fox farm, (3) Chicken farm, (4) Dairy farm, (5) Cotton farm, (6) Cattle ranch, (7) Walnut groves

Reasons why certain farms must be located in certain areas, as: (1) Apples in north, (2) Oranges in south

Experiences Involved

Discuss types of farms
See films of farm life *
Discuss personal experiences relating to farm life
Read stories and poems of farm life
Draw or paint various aspects of farm life
Write simple stories of the farmer and his family
Make charts
Write letters to children living on farms
Sing songs of farm life, as:
"Mary Had a Little Lamb," *New Music Horizons*, Book 1, p. 12
"Farmer in the Dell," *New Music Horizons*, Book 1, p. 28
"Familiar Friends," *New Music Horizons*, Book 1, p. 44
"My Little Brown Hen," *New Music Horizons*, Book 3, p. 154
Take trips to farm

2. To Find Out the Types of Foods Raised on Farms

Content

General farms produce: (1) Wheat, (2) Cattle, (3) Chickens, (4) Corn, (5) Beans, (6) Ducks, (7) Turkeys, (8) Sheep, (9) Vegetables, (10) Fruits

Special farms, as: (1) Citrus grove, (2) Poultry ranch, (3) Dairy farm, (4) Walnut grove, (5) Fruit and berry farm, (6) Truck garden

* See Bibliography: Audio-Visual, in original unit.

Experiences Involved

Show film of foods raised on farm, as: "Tomatoes from Farm to Market"

Read stories and poems *

Finger paint designs from plant life

Draw or paint pictures of:

Foods growing on farms

Farmer at work in the fields

Picking fruits and vegetables

Sing songs, as:

"Farmyard Song," *Our First Music*, p. 150

"The Cow," *Music Bulletin 28*

"The Butter Song," *Music Bulletin 28*

"How They Grow," *Our Songs*, p. 134

Model clay fruits and vegetables

Use maps: (1) To show where foods are produced, (2) To show where cattle are raised

Use outline maps: (1) To make picture maps, (2) To show agricultural areas

Make various foods, as: (1) Vegetable soup, (2) Dried foods, (3) Jelly

Have dramatic play, as: The farmer taking produce to market; Activities of producing foods as: (1) Plowing, (2) Planting seed, (3) Cultivating; Children doing farm work: (1) Gathering eggs, (2) Feeding chickens, (3) Feeding calves

Make charts of fruits and vegetables

Play classification games,† as: (1) Wordo, (2) Book games

3. To Find Out the Types of Animals Raised on Farms

Content

Animals for food: (1) Rabbits, (2) Sheep, (3) Cows, (4) Pigs, (5) Poultry, (6) Others

Animals for clothing: (1) Cows, (2) Sheep, (3) Rabbits, (4) Fox, (5) Others

Work animals: (1) Horses, (2) Mules

Other animals: (1) Dogs, (2) Cats

Care and protection of animals and fowl: (1) Housing, (2) Food, (3) Protection from disease

Experiences Involved

Discuss: (1) Types of animals, (2) Care of animals

Show animal films

* See Bibliography: Library, in original unit.

† See *Reading Activities Used in the Pasadena Elementary Schools*, Reading Bulletin No. 2. Pasadena City Schools, 1946, pp. 35, 37, and 45.

Draw or paint pictures including farm animals
Model clay animals
Sing songs:
"I'm a Duck," *Merry Music*, p. 52
"Five Fat Turkeys," *Merry Music*, p. 97
"The Cow," *Our First Music*, p. 140
"The Little Red Calf," *Our First Music*, p. 141
Make informational charts about different breeds of pigs, chickens, cows, and horses
Take walks and trips to see different kinds of animals
Play rhythms of animals
Do research to find: (1) Characteristics of animals and fowl, (2) Special kinds of foods for animals
Set a hen and hatch baby chicks

4. To Find Out Kinds of Machinery on Farms and Their Use

Content

Hoe
Spade
Rake
Shovel
Combine
Tractor
Harrow
Disc
Plow
Threshing Machine
Airplane or Helicopter
Milking Machine
Separator

Experiences Involved

Show pictures of farm implements
Make charts of types of farm implements
Write to an implement company asking for pictures of machinery
Write thank-you notes for these pictures
If possible, go to see farm machines
Have rhythms of farm machines
Walks to see tractors in action
Draw or paint pictures of farm implements in action

B. TO UNDERSTAND HOW OTHER PEOPLE HELP THE FARMER

1. To Find Out the Relationship of Specialized Workers to the Farmer

Content

Work of:
Veterinarian
Government inspectors
Farm laborers
Truck drivers
Train workers
Mechanics
Doctors
Postman

Experiences Involved

Have discussion, as: (1) The need for the services of these people, (2) The work of these persons in relation to farming

Show films and slides of specialized workers on the farms

Create stories, as: (1) How the veterinarian saved my pony, (2) The seeds the postman brought

Read stories and poems

Paint or draw these helpers at work

Sing songs:

"Country Road," *Merry Music*, p. 51

"Team Work," *Merry Music*, p. 110

Have dramatic play

Make pipestem cleaner dolls of the veterinary, laborer, truck driver, and so forth

Create songs about such topics, as: (1) Workers, (2) Rural free delivery

Make charts, as: (1) Specialized workers on the farm, (2) Services of the government inspector

2. To Find Out About Organizations That Assist Farmers

Content

Future Farmers, an organization in high school to learn of farming

4H Clubs, for young people to interest them in learning to meet needs; 4H Club fairs

U. S. Department of Agriculture, gives service through farm agents, literature, and so forth

Grange, for adults: (1) National organization with branches in each community, (2) Informational meetings, (3) Social meeting, (4) Has insurance for farm buildings and equipment

Experiences Involved

Discuss: (1) Farm organizations, (2) How the government aids the farmer

Invite someone in to tell of the work of 4H Clubs

Write to U. S. Dept. of Agriculture for literature and pictures that would enrich understanding of farm life

Might have an exhibit of vegetables raised in gardens

Organize a farm club and utilize subject matter as topics to discuss at meetings

3. To Find Out How Farmers Assist Each Other with Their Work

Content

Loaning or hiring out farm equipment

Exchange of products

Exchange of laborers

Cooperatives

How farmers of long ago helped each other

How farmers of today help each other

Experiences Involved

Draw pictures of large farm implements

Discuss meaning of cooperative idea

Have dramatic play, as: (1) Exchange of products, (2) Exchange of laborers, (3) How to use borrowed equipment, (4) Quilting bee, (5) House or barn raising

C. TO UNDERSTAND HOW THE FARMER MEETS HIS BASIC NEEDS

1. To Find Out How a Farm Is Housed and To Build a Farm

Content

Types of farms

Plan a farm to build

Possibilities for construction: (1) House, (2) Barn, (3) Garage, (4) Silo, (5) Windmill, (6) Sheds, (7) Fences, (8) People, (9) Trucks, (10) Haywagon, (11) Animals, (12) Troughs, (13) Doghouse, (14) Trees, (15) Corrals, (16) Fields, (17) Gas tanks for mechanized farm, (18) Powerhouse for electrical equipment

Aircraft in relation to farm life

Experiences Involved

Review kinds of farms through discussion, to aid in planning our farm

Make charts, as: (1) Things we need on our farm, (2) Material needed for the construction, (3) General layout of the farm, (4) Working groups or committees

Do research to gain information with: (1) Books, (2) Pictures, (3) Films, (4) Magazines, (5) Newspapers

Draw farm buildings

Make clay or papier-mâché animals, fruits, and vegetables as pumpkins, squash, tomatoes, and melons for farm fields

Animals on the farm

Play reading games,* as: (1) Wordo, (2) Book games

Discuss and illustrate when needed: (1) Technique of using materials and tools stressing safety, (2) Problems of proportion in relation to construction

Discuss and record on a chart: (1) Ways of working with materials, (2) Our work plans

Construct the items listed on the chart "Things we need on our farm"

* See *Reading Activities Used in the Pasadena Elementary Schools*, Reading Bulletin No. 2. Pasadena City Schools, 1946.

Make background for a farm set-up using poster paint, chalk, water color, crayon, or combination of these

Plant grass, wheat, oats, rye, or alfalfa in a shallow metal pan to be used as fields of grain for the farm

Evaluate work frequently to raise standards

Sing songs, as:

"From Wheat to Bread," *Merry Music*, p. 19

"The Farmer Grows the Corn," *Music Bulletin 28*

"Down in the Garden," *Music Horizons*, p. 100

2. To Find Out How the Farmer Feeds His Family

Content

Products from the farm, as: (1) Milk products, (2) Eggs, (3) Poultry and meats, (4) Vegetables, (5) Fruits and nuts

Products from market, as: (1) Soap products, (2) Bread, (3) Flour and cereals, (4) Sugar and spices, (5) Coffee, (6) Tea, (7) Cocoa

Experiences Involved

Discuss which products are grown on the farm and how they are prepared for use by the family

Have dramatic play as: (1) Milking cows, (2) Gathering eggs, (3) Picking vegetables, (4) Making butter and ice cream

Prepare and cook some vegetable such as peas

Raise an herb garden

Plan an exhibit of foods raised on farm, purchased in the city

Read grocery ads in newspaper for prices

Discuss why certain foods must be purchased at market, such as flour

Taste and identify spices

Make list of items to be purchased in town to make cocoa

Draw or paint such pictures as: (1) Farmer's wife gathering, preparing, and cooking foods; (2) Farmer going to town for supplies by plane, truck, auto

Sing songs, as:

"We Farmers Go to Market," *New Music Horizons*, Book 3, p. 6, or *Music Bulletin 28*

"My Pumpkins Are Ripe," *New Music Horizons*, Book 3, p. 20

"Working on the Farm," *New Music Horizons*, Book 3, p. 100

"Wake Up, Sleepy Head," *New Music Horizons*, Book 3, p. 134

Show films *

3. To Find Out How the Farmer Clothes His Family

Content

Interchange of materials from farm to city, and, later, from city to farm

* See Bibliography: Audio-Visual, in original unit.

Contrast modern method of obtaining clothing to that of years ago
Products from farms that are used in wearing apparel, as: (1) Cotton, (2) Leather, (3) Wool, (4) Linen

Experiences Involved

Discuss why the farmer does not directly use wool for clothes, leather for shoes, and so forth
Make comparison of early day farm life with modern mode of living
Have an exhibit of raw and finished products of wool, skins, cotton, linen
Learn how to arrange an exhibit artistically
Sing songs, as:
"From Sheep to Sweater," *Merry Music*, p. 34
"Mary Contrary," *Merry Music*, p. 129
Use catalogs to select clothing
Use films and other visual aids to enlarge understanding of obtaining clothing
Illustrate songs
Make a list of clothing to be purchased for winter use, summer use, and school use
Illustrate these lists of clothing
Make reports on processing of wool, leather, cotton
Write original stories and illustrate, as: (1) My wool dress, (2) The travels of a shoe
Dress pipestem dolls for unit set-up

D. TO UNDERSTAND WHY THE FARMER MUST PRODUCE GOOD CROPS

1. To Find Out About Producing Good Crops

Content

Soil: * (1) Types, (2) Fertilization and fumigating, (3) Conservation
Water: * (1) Irrigation, (2) Cover crops to prevent erosion
Weather conditions as they affect the crops: * (1) Rain, (2) Temperatures and smudging, (3) Fog, (4) Sunshine, (5) Dewpoint
Seed selections and care *
Control of harmful pests: * (1) Insects, (2) Birds, (3) Animals
Care of orchards, groves, and crops by: (1) Spraying, (2) Dusting, (3) Fumigating
Conservation of birds,* insects, reptiles, and animals that benefit the farmer

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* See *Science in the Elementary School*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1945.

Use of modern machinery in the care of crops, as: (1) Airplanes, (2) Helicopters, (3) Tractors

Experiences Involved

Discuss: (1) Types of soil,* (2) Crops that can best be grown in different types of soil, (3) New methods of dusting and spraying, (4) Planting cover crops by plane, (5) Checking fences, irrigation, and ditches by plane

Bring magazines and newspaper clippings about modern care of crops to: (1) Share with the class, (2) Make an interesting bulletin board arrangement, (3) Create charts to learn about layout and art composition in charts

Compare scientific and non-scientific feeding of crops

Take walks: (1) To find varieties of soils,* (2) To identify varieties of fruit and nut trees *

Have exhibits of: (1) Soils, (2) Fruits, (3) Grains, (4) Nuts

Create and illustrate stories about farmers caring for crops

Take bird walks

Plant a garden and care for it

Experiment with: (1) Planting seeds in various types of soil, (2) Soilless garden, (3) Plants grown in shade and sun, (4) Eggshell garden

Observe how sunlight, vitamins, fertilizer, moisture, and air affect plant life

Read science stories on topics related to producing good crops and make reports

2. To Find Out Why the Market Demands Good Products

Content

Reasons for markets

Why people go into the market business

Selection of products for marketing

Buying and selling produce at the market

Spoilage as a factor with fresh fruits and vegetables

Experiences Involved

Discuss: (1) Care of products to be marketed, (2) Methods of marketing crops

Review what the group knows of wholesale markets and care of produce

See films †

Dramatic play of: (1) Marketing potatoes, (2) Selling at a roadside stand

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* See *Science in the Elementary School.*

† See Bibliography: Audio-Visual, in original unit.

E. TO UNDERSTAND WHAT THE FARMER DOES WITH HIS PRODUCTS

1. To Find Out How Grain and Legume Crops Are Harvested

Content

Farm machinery used: (1) Care and use, (2) Safety

Farm labor: (1) How secured, (2) Housing and feeding, (3) Health

Weather conditions: (1) Wind affecting harvest, (2) Moisture, (3) Temperature, (4) Transportation

Storage and preservation of crops by using: (1) Grain elevators, (2) Hay barns, (3) Corn cribs, (4) Silos

Processing of these crops, as: (1) Wheat to flour or breakfast food, (2) Beans to mills to be packaged or canned, (3) Corn to "Fritos," "Post Toasties," Starch

Experiences Involved

Make information charts, as: (1) Types of grain and legume crops, (2) Story of wheat to bread, (3) Exhibit charts

Use design and new media for decorating charts

Dramatic play, as: (1) Harvesting grains, (2) Transportation of grain to elevator hay barn, (3) Daily routine of a farm laborer

Chew grains to distinguish flavors

Cook cereal, bake cookies, pop corn

Write creative stories that may be assembled in a book and illustrate these stories

Play singing games, as:

"Oats, Peas, Beans"

"Farmer in the Dell"

"Let Me Show You How the Farmer"

Create number games and stories

Sing songs, as:

"Mister Farmer," *Our First Music*, p. 147

"Oats and Beans," *Our First Music*, p. 152

"Farmer in the Dell," *Our First Music*, p. 153

2. To Find Out How Fruits and Vegetables Are Preserved for Use

Content

Canning at home: (1) How food is prepared, (2) Process of canning, (3) Safety

Cannery process: (1) Selling, (2) Transportation

Drying and dehydrating of fruits and vegetables: (1) Preparation, (2) Cleanliness, (3) Use of sulphur, (4) Protection from insects, (5) Weather effect, (6) Packaging, (7) Use

Freezing: (1) Home vs. commercial, (2) Values, (3) Preparation of food for freezing, (4) Use of frozen foods

Experiences Involved

Discuss safe methods of canning
Create and illustrate stories about canning
Cook dried fruits, make jelly, can fruit or vegetables
Make vegetable soup from dehydrated vegetables
Make charts or booklets, as: (1) Directions for preparing food for canning, (2) Recipes, (3) Classification of fruits and vegetables

3. To Find Out How Milk Is Processed

Content

Dairy cattle: (1) Care, (2) Feeding
Dairies: (1) Barns, (2) Machinery used there
People who work at the dairy
Kinds of milk: (1) Pasteurized, (2) Raw, (3) Evaporated, (4) Condensed, (5) Dried
Use of milk
Milk as a food
Government inspection of milk
By-products of milk: (1) Butter, (2) Cheese, (3) Ice Cream

Experiences Involved

Review work of the dairy farmer
Make butter, make cheese
Take a trip to a dairy *
Write stories about the dairy
Sing songs, as:
"Butter Song," *Music Bulletin 28*
"Milk," *Our First Music*, p. 72
"Take Your Choice," *Our First Music*, p. 144
"The Milk Train," *Our First Music*, p. 144
Make chart stories about baby animals that drink milk
See films on dairying activities †
Construct a dairy barn
Model clay animals
Make informational charts, as: (1) Kinds of milk, (2) Use of milk, (3) By-products of milk

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* See Excursion Techniques in original unit.
† See Bibliography: Audio-Visual in original unit.

4. To Find Out About the Care of Cattle, Sheep, Hogs, and Poultry To Be Marketed

Content

Feeding, shelter, health inspection

Service of veterinarian: (1) Importance of weight, (2) Cleanliness of shelter and feeding utensils

Protection by sprays, shots, and so forth

Driving cattle to market in early days in comparison to taking them by truck or rail today

How other animals reach the market

Experiences Involved

Discuss such topics as: (1) Similarity in kinds of food used for animals and people, (2) Reasons for shelter for some animals, (3) Pastures for cattle and sheep

Compare weights of types of cattle, sheep, and hogs

Dramatic play: (1) Rounding up cattle, (2) Feeding time for animals, (3) Cleaning of barns, stalls, coops, pens

Create rhythms of animals in action

Use film "Rhythms in Nature"

VI. *Anticipated Outcomes of the Unit*

A. *Culminating Activities*

These activities may indicate how deep and meaningful the experiences in farm life have been to the group. These activities need not always come at the end of the unit but may culminate a phase of it. These activities may be given in the classroom or assembly room for the group's own enjoyment, or for other classes or parents. Such activities are:

1. Simple plays that originate in the dramatic play of farm life and incorporate the results of various activities worked out in the unit, such as murals, stage properties, songs, poems, stories, rhythms, dances, games, and such charts as:
   a. A Day at the Farm
   b. Getting Ready for the County Fair
   c. A Quilting Party
   d. A 4H Club Meeting
2. Simple rhythmic dramatizations with songs, orchestrations, rhythmic accompaniments, or original songs, dances, and games as:
   a. Activities in the construction of buildings and of the workmen around a farm
   b. Activities on the farm in daily living or on unusual occasions such as harvesting
3. A program of songs, orchestrations, stories, games, and bodily rhythms given by individuals or the group.

4. An "Open House" to show such work done during the study of Farm Life as pictures, stories, songs, charts, construction, and books.
5. The dramatizing of stories about life on the farm.
6. Making a movie roll to show information gained, activities on the farm, or to illustrate a well liked story of farm life.
7. Developing an informative program, using audio-visual aids, charts, and short informal talks.
8. Creating a class book of stories, informational material, charts, and pictures to show information gained.
9. Sharing the butter, ice cream, jelly, cheese, or other food prepared with parents, another class, or received as gifts.

B. *Basic Understandings*

The child should evidence:

1. An increased understanding of his relationship to the farmer.
2. A broader understanding of farm life and what people in agricultural areas contribute toward better ways of living.
3. A better understanding of the need for adequate food, clothing, shelter, and leisure-time activities on the farm.
4. An understanding of the harmonious inter-relationship necessary among all persons in order to have a desirable world.
5. A better understanding of how and why rules, regulations, and laws are made.
6. A better understanding of the various services rendered to rural communities through transportation and communications facilities, workers, and modern scientific developments.
7. An understanding of the needs for health and safety regulations in farm life, and for personal health and safety habits.
8. A better understanding of the need for each person to be an effective citizen of a community.
9. An increased understanding of the things of nature, the effect of it upon the ways of living, and of the advances man has made in controlling it.
10. A broadening understanding of an ever widening community life.
11. An understanding and appreciation of beauty found on the farm and in the farm way of life.

C. *Appreciations and Attitudes*

The child should evidence:

1. Reasonable growth in the attitudes desirable for effective social living and in personality adjustment as shown by:
   a. A desire to bear his own share of responsibility

b. An appreciation of work done by various persons in relation to farm living
c. Attitudes essential to working effectively with others including:
   (1) Willingness to follow work rules formulated by the group
   (2) Respect for the rights of others
   (3) Willingness to do his share of the work
   (4) Care in the use of materials
   (5) Taking turns when working with a group
   (6) Giving and taking constructive criticism

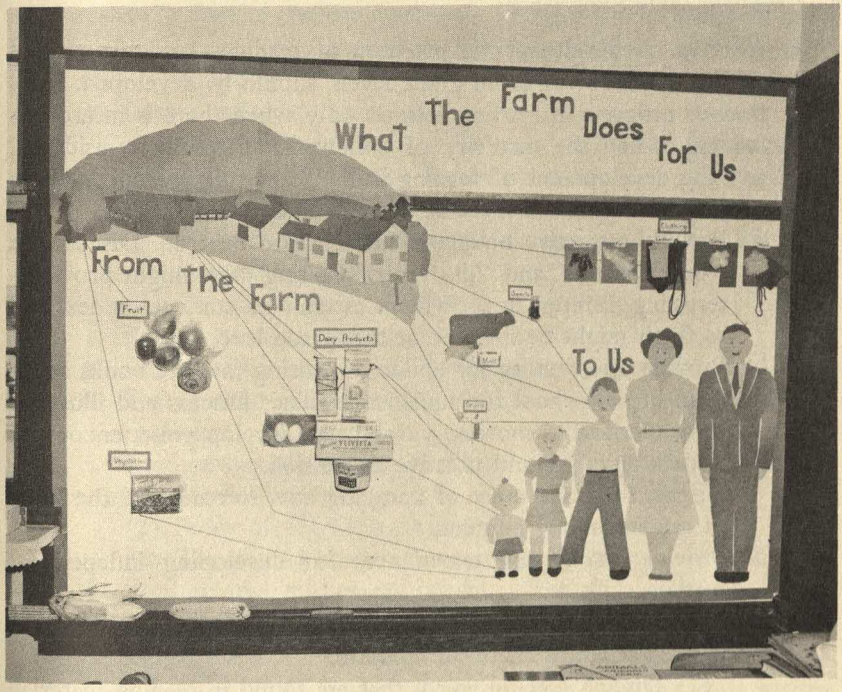
2. Growth in a feeling of inner security in self-expression through art, music, rhythms, dances, and language.
3. Appreciation of and respect for health and safety regulations.
4. An increased, intelligent curiosity toward an environment just beyond our own community.
5. Increased growth in a courteous attitude toward all people.

D. *Skills and Techniques*

The child should evidence increased proficiency in

1. Techniques of democratic life, as:
   a. Setting up plans and working effectively toward their solution
   b. Using freedom while engaging in worth-while activities
   c. Working independently and in groups in an effective manner
   d. Using initiative and followership
   e. Facing and solving problems
   f. Evaluating his own work
2. Ability to read and understand books, magazines, newspapers, charts, pictures, and so forth, in order to extend information and enrich experiences.
3. Ability to go to the source for information if possible, as going to a farm, interviewing people, performing experiments, planting a garden, and so forth.
4. Ability to express himself orally or in writing.
5. Ability to spell words needed.
6. Ability to write legibly and neatly.
7. Ability to use an increasing vocabulary, to speak clearly, and give information in an interesting manner when communicating with others.
8. Ability to use number concepts and fundamentals, and to solve problems in a functional manner.

9. Ability to use tools in order to meet needs that arise.
10. Ability to express ideas through fine and industrial arts, music, bodily rhythms, and language.
11. Ability to do critical thinking and study.
12. Beginning research techniques.



PART 2

Skills as Related to the Unit

A. *Language Arts Experiences*

1. *Reading.* A developmental program of reading, recognizing that readiness is involved at all grade levels, should be developed. Continuous progress in reading follows only when there is interest in reading, when the maturity of children is carefully considered, and the development of reading skills is carefully planned. Silent reading is emphasized more at this age level.*
   a. Provide attractive books on farm life to be read. Discuss the words "author" and "illustrator." Editing dates might prove interesting. Interest in such items as table of contents, index, and so forth might be initiated at this grade level.
   b. Provide opportunity for children to bring favorite books about farm life to school for audience reading. Discuss and illustrate some of these to increase vocabulary, develop poise, encourage critical thinking and creative expression.
   c. Discuss the importance of knowing how to read, and the value of understanding content.
   d. Provide challenging experiences for developing independent reading skills as:
      (1) Read stories and make lists of new words about farm life that are dramatic or colorful.
      (2) Discuss specific words that are found in reading material; point out differences between small and capital letters, and unusual aspects of words such as double letters, silent letters, and other interesting factors of word study.
      (3) Show value of the recognition of words by their meaning in context of reading.
      (4) Experiment with sounds of animals.
      (5) Use phonetic analysis when needed.†
      (6) List groups of words with pleasing sound effects, as: (a) Tinkling cow bells, (b) Waving grain, (c) Whirring of motors

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* See *Some Questions and Answers About Reading in the Elementary School Program,* Reading Bulletin No. 1. Pasadena City Schools, 1946.

† See *Instructional Policies in the Pasadena Elementary Schools,* 1944; and *Language Arts in the Elementary School Curriculum,* Curriculum Monograph 109 B. Pasadena City Schools, 1936, pp. 43-51.

(7) Play games with words that present concepts and words pertaining to farm life, as: * (a) Wordo, (b) Book games, (c) Word-and-phrase dominoes
(8) Select the main thought of a sentence.
(9) Read for information in preparation for reports.
(10) Select materials as an aid in answering questions.
(11) Group for help in specific reading skills.†
(12) Read to follow directions, as: (a) How to make an insect cage, (b) How to make vegetable soup, (c) Having a quilting party

e. Create and read charts, as:
(1) Experience stories: (a) Animals we saw on the farm, (b) Visiting a dairy, (c) Building a truck
(2) Informational charts: (a) How grain is harvested, (b) How to make butter, (c) Making a garden, (d) Farm implements
(3) Committee plans for work

f. Read signs used on farms.
g. Read number stories and problems concerning farm activities.
h. Free reading for the child's own pleasure develops the skill of reading.
i. Read newspapers and magazines concerning farm activities, as:
(1) Market reports
(2) Story of 4H Club activities
(3) The part airplanes play in farm life today

j. Read creative stories and poems.
k. Read bulletin board notices, announcements, letters, invitations, and so forth.

2. *Oral expression.* To provide experiences to help the child express himself well, increase his word power, and feel secure before a group by:
a. Telling personal experiences, as:
(1) Last year's excursion to the market
(2) A summer visit on a farm
(3) Neighborhood visits to see chickens, goats, and horses
(4) Visiting nearby orchards

b. Talking about plans to develop the unit, as:
(1) What we shall build for our farm
(2) Planning an excursion to a dairy
(3) Using a film to gain information about the care of citrus groves

* See *Reading Activities Used in the Pasadena Elementary Schools,* Reading Bulletin No. 2. Pasadena City Schools, 1946.

† See *Some Questions and Answers About Reading in the Elementary School Program,* Reading Bulletin No. 1. Pasadena City Schools, 1946, pp. 7 and 21.

c. Telling about interesting farm stories and reading poems from books on farm life.
d. Creating original stories about farm life.
e. Discussing nature experiences, as:
   (1) Experimenting with different kinds of soil
   (2) The effect of temperatures on fruit ripening
   (3) Planting of seeds to watch germination
   (4) Use of shade, wind breaks, plant coverings, and fruit trees on a farm
   (5) Kinds of plants found on a farm
f. Talking about health and safety, as:
   (1) Safety in the use of farm machinery
   (2) The health of the fruit pickers
   (3) How to use tools safely
   (4) The value of outdoor play
g. Discussion of things constructed for farm, as:
   (1) Where to place the buildings
   (2) How the clay animals can serve us best on the farm we constructed
   (3) Where the farmer can plant his fields in relation to the buildings on the farm
h. Planning and composing story and informal charts.
i. Making announcements, introductions, invitations, such as:
   (1) Weather report as affecting citrus crops
   (2) A barker at a county fair
   (3) Making introductions on an excursion
   (4) Introducing people who come to talk with the group on phases of farm life
j. Reporting to the group after research on a special topic.
k. Reporting on newspaper or magazine clippings that tell of happenings in agricultural areas.
l. Learning how to listen well, as:
   (1) Listening for all the people's names in a story
   (2) Listening for main events in sequence and recording them
   (3) Playing listening games, as:
   Name five animals mentioned in the song "Old McDonald Had a Farm"
   (4) Giving quizzes after reports are made
m. Composing of stories by the class for farm books to show information gained. These books may be illustrated.
n. Children tell what they have learned from the study of farm life, as:
   (1) Giving individual culminating reports on completed phases of the study

(2) Sharing learnings with our parents
(3) Dictating for a chart or class book
(4) Telling "Why I would (or would not) like to be a farmer"

o. Participating in dramatic play,* as:
(1) A hog-calling contest
(2) A day at the county fair, emphasizing a demonstration of caring for animals, judging, and so forth
(3) A farmer's day

p. Discussing films or slides used in the group.

q. Producing an original play utilizing facts learned about farm life.

r. Giving all in the group many opportunities in all types of oral language experiences to improve their pronunciation and enunciation and to develop a pleasing speaking voice.

s. Give opportunity for constructive evaluation as an aid in oral expression.

3. *Written expression*

a. The purposes of writing experiences are:
(1) To satisfy the desire to write
(2) To express oneself creatively after having had increasingly rich experience
(3) To grow in expressing thoughts on a written page
(4) To develop a good, legible handwriting

During the 3B Grade, the transition is made from manuscript to cursive writing. The time the change is made depends upon (1) whether the children have developed sufficient motor coordination to learn the more difficult cursive forms, and (2) whether they have attained a sense of security in their reading skill.†

(5) To introduce simple forms of writings, such as paragraphs, using questions, quotations, and exclamations

b. Opportunities should be provided for many types of writing experience, as:
(1) Letters to children living on farms
(2) Thank-you notes to the dairymen or farmers that the group has visited
(3) Creative three- or five-line sentences about the farm and its workers
(4) Group stories, charts, and poems

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* See Dramatic Play Techniques in original unit.
† See *Instructional Policies in the Pasadena Elementary Schools.* Pasadena City Schools, 1944, p. 19.

(5) Giving such information as first and last name, name of school, location of school, and so forth
(6) Simple invitations to friends, parents, and others to visit "Our Farm"
(7) Creative poems, songs, or stories about the farm
(8) Letters to dairies to find out: (a) About scientific feeding of cattle, (b) How to make cheese, (c) The by-products of milk
(9) Safety signs to be used on the farm

c. Develop skill in writing by watching for:
(1) A healthful writing position
(2) Legible writing, using either manuscript or cursive
(3) The opportunity to stress the mechanics of written expression, such as capitalization, and simple punctuation
(4) Opportunities for children to express themselves in writing

4. *Literature.* The reading program should be broader than the learning-to-read or study type. The program should also include the development of literary appreciation and recreational reading. The literature period should be a time of relaxation and enjoyment.

a. Values of the literature period are:
(1) To stimulate creative thinking
(2) To relax when overstimulated
(3) To develop an appreciation of picture words
(4) To enlarge the vocabulary of expressive words children should be taught to find out meaning of words that are not understood
(5) To develop and widen interests in recreational reading

b. Experiences to develop an interest in good literature are:
(1) Reading stories from the library table that are related to the farm unit
(2) Reading and listening to story books brought in by children
(3) Listening, reading, and enjoying all *types* of favorite stories, as: (a) Fairy stories, (b) Informational stories, (c) Stories read by teacher, (d) Stories read by fluent reader, (e) A simple, short, prepared selection by a less mature reader
(4) Retelling favorite stories
(5) Listening to and learning poems for enjoyment
(6) Listening to good readings of children's stories
(7) Dramatization of choice stories from literature
(8) Doing simple forms of choral verse reading
(9) Developing library skills by interpreting general make-up of books as to: (a) Title page, (b) Author and illustrator,

(c) Table of contents, (d) Publication dates, (e) Chapter numbers, and so forth

(10) Helping children to discriminate between the desirable and less desirable things in literature *

(11) Consider the child's preference in free reading *

(12) Following visit to the library, have children read selections from their books to arouse interest on part of other children in books

(13) During library hour invite a child to pick up a book from library table and read

(14) Make reports on books—(The emphasis should be on comprehension rather than on the number of books read). Reports may be given in various ways as:

(a) Drawing a picture to illustrate the book read

(b) Making a card on which to record information, as:

Book title
Author
Child's name
Favorite character
A simple summary of the story

Such a card might be taken home during the semester to interest parents in the type of reading done in the classroom.

(c) Read parts from stories you enjoy, as: A humorous part, A characterization, Some dialect

B. *Spelling Experiences*

Spelling is a tool for written expression in which each child should have the opportunity:

1. To create a need for spelling by writing original farm stories using a vocabulary developed in the classroom.
2. To help compose charts using the new vocabulary words.
3. To satisfy the desire to write.
4. To have the spelling program so individualized as to help him at his own level of achievement.
5. To record individually needed words.
6. To understand that success in spelling is not the percentage of words that the child spells correctly but how well he spells when he writes to meet his needs.

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* See *Language Arts in the Elementary School Curriculum*, Curriculum Monograph 109-B. Pasadena City Schools, 1936, pp. 72-81.

7. To begin formal spelling. (It is well to have groups in spelling. It is advisable to check the immature spellers individually.)
8. To use words in the state text to create a story other than the ones given, and to make other use of the words.
9. To be able to spell words pertaining to the unit in their writing.

C. *Arithmetic Experiences*

These experiences should enrich the state textbook, expand the child's number knowledge, and help him to use number concepts and skills within the limit of his interest and daily experience. Arithmetic experiences should enter into the social studies experiences, such as dramatic play, construction, science, and art, whenever possible. Reasoning and knowledge of what to do in order to find the answer are as important as accuracy.

1. *Counting*, as:
   a. The number of trees needed in our orchard, trees in each row
   b. The horses needed on a modern farm as compared to a farm of many years ago
   c. The cows needed for a herd
   d. The sheep needed for a flock
   e. The acres to be sprayed by the farmer
   f. The boxes of fruit to be sent to market
   g. The extra farm laborers needed for harvest
2. *Writing numbers*, as:
   a. The price of a cow, a sheep, a horse; the price of food
   b. Recording the amount of milk given daily by a cow and comparing with previous day's record
   c. Recording the rabbits in new litters
   d. The monthly laying record of a hen
3. *Measuring*, as:
   a. Linear
      (1) To make fences needed to enclose the entire farm
      (2) To make fences needed to enclose pastures, pig pen, chicken yard, and so forth
      (3) To make roads surrounding farm
      (4) To plan space needed on our farm for pastures, and so forth
      (5) To measure pieces of wood needed for construction
   b. Liquid
      (1) To measure correct amounts needed in cooking
      (2) To write and read number stories about measuring gallons of milk produced on a farm
      (3) To learn about measuring gallons of milk from individual cows and to compare records

(4) To find out about measuring gallons of gasoline needed for farm work
(5) To measure rainfall
(6) To measure liquids in pints, quarts, half gallons, and gallons

c. Weight
(1) To find out how to determine weight of cow, horse, and sheep
(2) To compare weight of various farm animals
(3) To find out how produce is weighed to be flown to market so that the plane is not overloaded
(4) To weigh pounds of fruit, potatoes, clay

d. Temperature
(1) To keep a temperature chart
(2) Listening to temperature reports
(3) Comparing seasonal temperatures as they affect farm crops

e. Time
(1) Count the days necessary to hatch eggs
(2) Count the days necessary for various crops to germinate
(3) Discuss seasons for special farm activities as: (a) Spring and fall for wheat planting, (b) Winter to make plans for crops to be planted, (c) Summer and fall for harvesting
(4) Comparison of amounts of rainfall for previous years
(5) Comparison of profits from various crops by years
(6) Find radio time schedules for farm broadcast
(7) Checking the speed of planes
(8) Look up dates on a calendar

4. *Dealing with money*, as:
a. Finding out the cost of an acre of farm land.
(1) The cost of an acre of farm land
(2) The cost of various farm machines
(3) The market price of farm commodities as compared to cost of production
(4) The wages to be paid to farm help
(5) The prices paid for cows, horses, and so forth
(6) The selling price of produce
(7) The cost of haying, mash, and so forth for animals
(8) How to keep account of yearly farm costs and profit
(9) How to determine profit that has been cleared on each crop; on all crops
(10) The cost of school excursions to a farm

b. Buying and selling farm products.
c. Using coins of all denominations for buying.

5. Providing opportunity for:
   a. Addition, as:
      (1) Planning for enlargement of present herds of cattle
      (2) Planning need for more acreage
      (3) Using many number stories pertaining to the farm
      (4) Marketing farm products in dramatic play, using fundamental processes
   b. Subtraction, as:
      (1) Making change in farm activities
      (2) Reading and solving many number stories involving subtraction
   c. Fractions, as:
      (1) In cooking using ½ cup, ¼ teaspoon, and so forth
      (2) Dividing or enlarging recipes
      (3) Counting eggs by dozen and half-dozen
6. Building an arithmetical vocabulary pertaining to farm activities by giving many opportunities to recognize such words, as:

acre	weight	days
gallons	height	weeks
pints	length	quarters
quarts	miles	halves
pounds	ounces	dollars
profit	tons	feet
loss	minutes	dozens
	hours	

7. Understanding simple proportion
8. Playing number games

Arts as Related to the Unit

A. *Music Experiences*

1. *Sing.*
   a. Patriotic songs
      (1) "America," first and last stanzas
      (2) "Yankee Doodle," *Our Songs*, p. 94
      (3) "Battle Hymn of the Republic" (chorus only; Early Adult Version)
      (4) "Columbia, the Gem of the Ocean" (chorus only)
      (5) "America the Beautiful," *Merry Music*, p. 170
   b. Songs from state music text
   c. Farm songs; see:
      (1) *Our First Music*, pp. 139-150
      (2) *Our Songs*, pp. 36, 109, 134, 151
      (3) *Merry Music*, pp. 19, 34, 51, 52, 97, 110
      (4) *Music Bulletin 28*
      (5) *Music Bulletin 10* (Song Source List)
   d. Christmas songs to be memorized
      (1) "Away in a Manger," *Music Bulletin 28*
      (2) "There's a Song in the Air," *Music Bulletin 28*
      (3) "Silent Night," *Our Songs*, p. 25 (1 stanza)
      (4) "Jingle Bells," *Our Songs*, p. 111
      (5) "What Can I Give Him?"
      (6) "The First Noel" (2 stanzas)
2. *Play.* Rhythm Orchestra (See *Music Bulletin 28* and *28D*)
3. *Compose.* Encourage spontaneous singing by individuals or the group through:
   a. Providing opportunity at the right moment
   b. Developing appreciative attitude within the group toward individual creative effort
   c. Developing appreciative teacher-attitude toward even the slightest fragmentary expression, thus developing confidence within the child who creates

B. *Art Experiences*

1. *Introduction.* Opportunity for creative art experiences should be included in the daily program. It is important that the teacher provide many and varied experiences in keeping with the individual abilities of the children. Thought and care should be given toward the attainment of maximum results. These results should be eval-

uated in terms of growth and development of the individual. Art experiences should include other activities in addition to drawing and painting in order to broaden the background of the children, and increase their opportunities for creative expression.

2. *Suggested areas of activity.*
   a. Individual activities
      (1) Free painting, using easels, chalkboard, or floor and using 18″ x 24″ paper, as: (a) Farm landscapes, (b) Illustrations of farm activities, (c) Pictures with farm animals or plants
      (2) Painting or drawing on paper 12″ x 18″ (same as above)
      (3) Painting or drawing any subject inspired by children's interest as: circus, windy days, nearby fire, a trip to the beach
      (4) Modeling animals or people, using clay
      (5) Finger painting
      (6) Cut paper pictures or designs or paper sculpture
   b. Group activities
      (1) Large painting or drawing on which two or more children may work
      (2) Creating of a peep show or set-up from a subject of their choice
      (3) Mural involving either a large or a small group of children and using any of the following media: (a) Chalk, (b) Poster paint, (c) Crayon, (d) Water color, (e) Various combinations of the above, (f) Cut paper or cut-outs
   c. Appreciation experiences
      (1) Enjoyment and discussion of pictures
      (2) Enjoyment and discussion of beautiful objects
      (3) Enjoyment and discussion of nature
   d. Experimentation with combinations of materials
      (1) Finger painting allowing choice of a color and providing more than one opportunity
      (2) Colored chalk and wet paper
      (3) Crayon with poster or watercolor paint over wash
      (4) Cut paper
3. *Techniques and materials.* It must be remembered that the significance of techniques and materials lies in the purposes and goals for which they are used. These purposes and goals should be the outgrowth of pupil-teacher planning. An adequate art program should maintain a fine balance between group and individual activities.
   a. The mural, or wall poster, is highly recommended as a technique through which upper primary boys and girls can learn to work together and through which evaluation, discrimination, and appreciation can be taught.

b. Finger painting is especially effective in these grades for developing freedom in children and providing release from nervous tension.

c. Individual work at the easel is a must for third graders. Materials such as 18" x 24" unprinted newsprint, advertising sections of the daily paper, wrapping paper, or bogus are all suitable for such work. Poster paint or chalk is a good medium for this type of experience.

d. Cut paper sometimes employing the third dimension is interesting and different. The results from this work are almost always excellent.

e. Art games are fun and provide unconscious learning.

f. Spatter work in several colors is good at this level.

g. Providing inspiration is a technique and can be approached through a variety of ways; i.e., discussion, stories, poems, music, pictures, walks, excursions, and films. All of these techniques help to develop thinking ability and can be used to encourage original and creative work.

4. *Murals or wall posters.*

a. The teacher's part in this activity is to guide the group in their planning, encourage them as they go along.

b. The class discusses ideas to be incorporated in the poster and makes a list including many ideas for details as well.

c. Each child makes a sketch of his idea of what the complete poster will look like on paper folded to the right proportions. This crystallizes their thinking. The class evaluates those they think most suitable to their plan. The people whose sketches are chosen form a committee. This committee will begin the drawing on the poster, using white or any light chalk.

d. The other children practice on drawing details for the background and foreground and from their sketches the children select ideas and another committee to carry on the work. This continues until the poster is finished. Together the whole group evaluates their project and adds such finishing touches as are necessary.

5. *Topical possibilities for pictures and murals.*

a. Landscapes

(1) Farm buildings
(2) Fields and orchards
(3) Fences, roads, trees
(4) Gardens
(5) Streams, ponds, wells

b. Illustrations for stories or ideas

(1) Farm workers, such as packers, pickers, canners, and loaders
(2) Farm families
(3) Farm animals

(4) Farm activities concerned with machinery and transportation

c. Posters or murals using any of the above ideas

d. Plants
   (1) Designs using plant forms, such as grain and vegetables
   (2) Wild flowers
   (3) Flowering trees

e. Designs
   (1) Block or stick prints of plants or animals
   (2) Cut-out designs
   (3) Sprayed or stenciled designs

f. Farm puppets for dramatic play

C. *Rhythms, Dances, and Games*

1. *Introduction.* "Through a balanced and progressive program of activities the physical education curriculum provides a series of experiences adapted to the age and maturity of the child." * Play on the apparatus, running and circle games, creative rhythms and dances, and the fundamental rhythms develop strong muscles.

2. *Suggested experiences.*

a. Rhythms
   (1) Planting seeds; seeds growing
   (2) Hopping toads and rabbits
   (3) Cultivating crops
   (4) Rain, wind
   (5) Picking fruit
   (6) Grains swaying in the breeze
   (7) Airplanes and helicopters
   (8) Animal walks

   (*Note:* Have children establish rhythm. Teacher accompanying the children with drums, wood blocks, triangle, and so forth.)

b. Dances and singing games
   (1) "Rabbit in the Hollow," *P.E. I*,† pp. 50, 51
   (2) "Reap the Flax," *P.E. II*,** p. 24
   (3) "Pop Goes the Weasel," *P.E. IV*,†† p. 20
   (4) "Virginia Reel," *P.E. IV*, pp. 17, 18
   (5) "Jump Jim Crow," *P.E. IV*, p. 39
   (6) "Elements of Quadrille" (Cowboy Dances), *P.E. IV*, pp. 159-165
   (7) "Oats, Peas, Beans & Barley Grow," *S. M.*,*** P. 111

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* *Instructional Policies in the Pasadena Elementary Schools.* Pasadena, California, 1944.

† *Physical Education Syllabus, Grades 1 & 2B.*

** *Physical Education Syllabus, Grades 2A & 3.*

†† *Physical Education Syllabus, Grades 4-6.*

*** See *State Manual–Manual of Physical Education, Activities for Elementary Schools.*

(8) "Farmer Plants the Seeds," *P.E. I*, p. 33
(9) "Animal Rhythms," *P.E. I*, p. 106
(10) "Vineyard Frolic," *P.E. IV*, pp. 5, 8

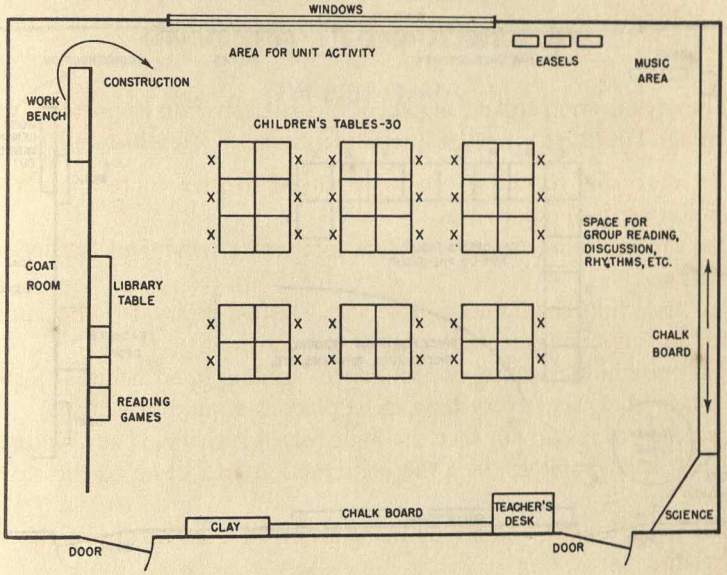
c. Games
(1) "Hill Dill," *S. M.*, p. 135
(2) "Flowers and Wind," *S. M.*, p. 105
(3) "Bull in the Ring," *S. M.*, p. 182
(4) "Forest Lookout," *S. M.*, p. 133
(5) "Fruit Basket," *P.E. II*, p. 105
(6) "Vis-a-Vis," *S. M.*, p. 250
(7) "Lame Fox and Chicken," *S. M.*, p. 134
(8) Ball games and additional games–see current outline and *Physical Education Syllabus* in office in all schools.

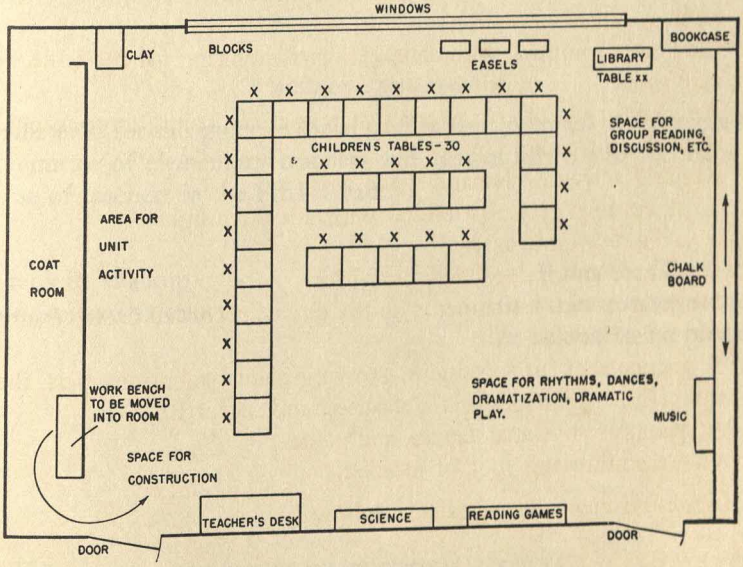
Suggested Room Arrangements

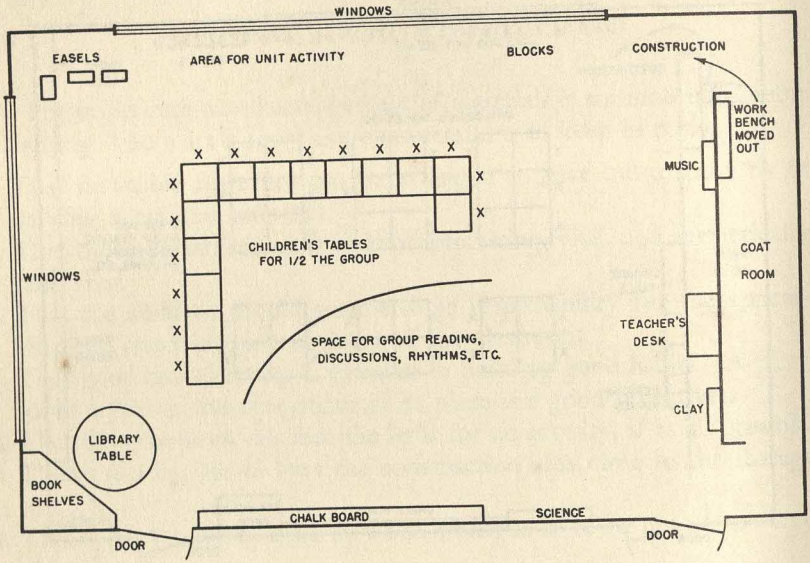
The organization and arrangement of materials is an important factor in learning. There are a few basic considerations to keep in mind:

A. That moveable furniture can be arranged to give more space to fit varying needs and activities.
B. That the environment must be kept interesting, vital, and aesthetically satisfying.
C. That the children should assume some responsibility for the appearance and functional arrangement of the classroom.
D. That good housekeeping is essential to building good habits. (A place for everything and everything in its place is a good objective.)
E. That the groups do not face the light for an activity, if at all possible.
F. That it is advisable to have the construction area close to the storage space.
G. That space for the unit set-up be so arranged as to be out of the way of traffic.
H. That use be made of any outdoor area adjacent to the room.
I. That an effective classroom have various work and interest centers, such as:
    1. A construction area with workbenches, sawhorses, tools, nails, lumber, boxes.
    2. Clay table equipped with clay, clay jars, covering for the table, and clay tools.
    3. An area for use of art materials such as easels, paint, crayons, chalk, scissors, and paper.
    4. Reading activities demand space for:
        a. A reading group provided with adequate light
        b. A library table or shelf
        c. Games and independent activities
    5. Music area with instruments, music charts, recorded creative songs, and music books.
    6. A science area for specimens, growing plants, aquarium, pets, thermometer, magnifying glass, magnet, and so forth.
    7. A space for rhythms, dances, and games.
J. Provide a stimulating spot of interest.

Some suggested room arrangements follow.


WINDOWS
AREA FOR UNIT ACTIVITY
EASELS
MUSIC AREA
CONSTRUCTION
WORK BENCH
CHILDREN'S TABLES-30
SPACE FOR GROUP READING, DISCUSSION, RHYTHMS, ETC.
COAT ROOM
LIBRARY TABLE
CHALK BOARD
READING GAMES
CLAY
CHALK BOARD
TEACHER'S DESK
SCIENCE
DOOR
DOOR


WINDOWS
BOOKCASE
CLAY
BLOCKS
EASELS
LIBRARY TABLE
CHILDRENS TABLES-30
SPACE FOR GROUP READING, DISCUSSION, ETC.
AREA FOR UNIT ACTIVITY
COAT ROOM
CHALK BOARD
WORK BENCH TO BE MOVED INTO ROOM
SPACE FOR RHYTHMS, DANCES, DRAMATIZATION, DRAMATIC PLAY.
MUSIC
SPACE FOR CONSTRUCTION
TEACHER'S DESK
SCIENCE
READING GAMES
DOOR
DOOR


WINDOWS
EASELS
AREA FOR UNIT ACTIVITY
BLOCKS
CONSTRUCTION
WORK BENCH MOVED OUT
MUSIC
COAT ROOM
CHILDREN'S TABLES FOR 1/2 THE GROUP
WINDOWS
SPACE FOR GROUP READING, DISCUSSIONS, RHYTHMS, ETC.
TEACHER'S DESK
CLAY
LIBRARY TABLE
BOOK SHELVES
CHALK BOARD
SCIENCE
DOOR
DOOR

Unit of Work on Early American Life

(*For Fifth Grade*)

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The material for this guide in social studies was compiled and prepared by a committee of elementary teachers and central office staff members for the use of teachers in the Fifth Grade.

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MANY ACTIVITI
LEARNING

APPENDIX B

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PART 1

Unit of Work on Early American Life

I. *General Purposes* ("The unit of work should use the experiences of the child and give him experiences he can use.")

A. To help the child understand his culture through direct experiences in selected phases of our culture and through comparisons with other cultures by means of:

1. Firsthand experiences (work with life processes).
2. Experimentation.
3. Excursions.
4. Visual aids and library materials.
5. The arts (creative experiences—art, dramatic play, music, rhythms).

B. To develop the ability to work democratically in groups:

1. To learn to contribute to a group project and carry out responsibilities in that project.
2. To learn to accept, appreciate, and help with the contributions to others.
3. To achieve status through special contributions and give status to others for the same.
4. To accept criticism and help from others.
5. To learn to lead and to follow.

C. To develop the ability to do critical thinking:

1. To *think through* the steps in a problem or plan.
2. To learn techniques for acquiring authentic information and checking sources of information.
3. To consider choices in the light of consequences.
4. To test choices through action and to re-evaluate them.

D. To help the child develop personally:

1. To have on-going interests.
2. To be able to work independently.
3. To develop some special skills and abilities.
4. To have a knowledge of control of his health needs.
5. To develop social controls and emotional release.

E. To help the child see the place of the skills (reading, writing, arithmetic, etc.) in the culture and feel the need for personal achievement in those skills (further achievement to be provided for in the regular practice periods).

F. To help the child organize his life experiences and express himself through the media of the creative arts (art, creative writing, dramatic play, music, rhythms).

II. *Specific Purposes*

A. To provide experiences in the simple life processes of early America as a means of developing a beginning understanding of the complicated industrial life processes of today.

B. To build an appreciation of and acquaintance with the folklore, traditions, and democratic spirit of our own country.

C. To build an appreciation and knowledge of what our land is like (beauty, physical features, natural resources, etc.).

D. To give children a beginning understanding of the sweep of progress in the United States.

III. *An Overview of Possible Emphases*

We hope that, in most instances, classes will be able to spend a year in the study of Early American Life.

The American Colonies varied so much in conditions and organization that it would be impossible to relive the life of the people in all the colonies in a fifth grade study. Therefore, it is suggested that this study center upon life in one of the colonies, drawing incidental comparisons to the others and building some background in the life of all the colonies through stories and pictures. For intensive study, the New England Colonies offer simpler problems and more available reading material than the rest; therefore, we recommend them especially.

The story of the early explorers and discovery of America should be woven in as background material *while* the children are engaged in constructing the colonial home. It is not a major emphasis.

The Colonial Study presents itself as the best place to emphasize the life processes of the home; the Pioneer Study, when men began to explore the wilderness, clear the land and establish outposts, is a good center for the reliving of wilderness camps and forts; and the Westward Movement Study naturally offers opportunity for reliving the transportation problems and routes across our country.

Therefore, the emphases in this year's study will probably be:

A. An Early Colonial Study leading to:

1. The building of a background for the interior of a New England home (preferably Pilgrim) and experiences in the actual processes of furnishing the house and producing needed supplies.

2. Reliving the community relationships with neighbors, church and schools.
3. Making comparisons with other colonies.

(This phase should take not more than three months.)

B. A Pioneer Study leading to:
1. Hunters and scouts exploring the wilderness (Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, etc.) and making their hunters' camps.
2. The building of fortified settlements (Boonesborough) and clearing the lands nearby.

(This phase should take approximately four months.)

C. A Westward Movement Study leading to:
1. The possible reconstruction of a frontier town like Independence, where wagon-trains were outfitted for the west.
2. The building, outfitting, and organizing of a wagon train.
3. The trip West over one of the trails (comparing with the others).

(This phase should take at least three months.)

For those instances where a class can spend only one semester in an Early American Study we suggest emphasizing the Pioneer Period for half a semester and then following with the Westward Movement. Instead of centering construction activities on building a fort: (a) build the background for the interior of a pioneer log cabin, (b) do the life processes of the home. (In a year's study, this would have been done in the Colonial Home Activities; here we must necessarily carry these processes over, for home processes are basic to the understanding of any culture.)

For the Westward Movement Study, follow the outline of the year's unit.

IV. *Some Ways to Initiate This Unit*

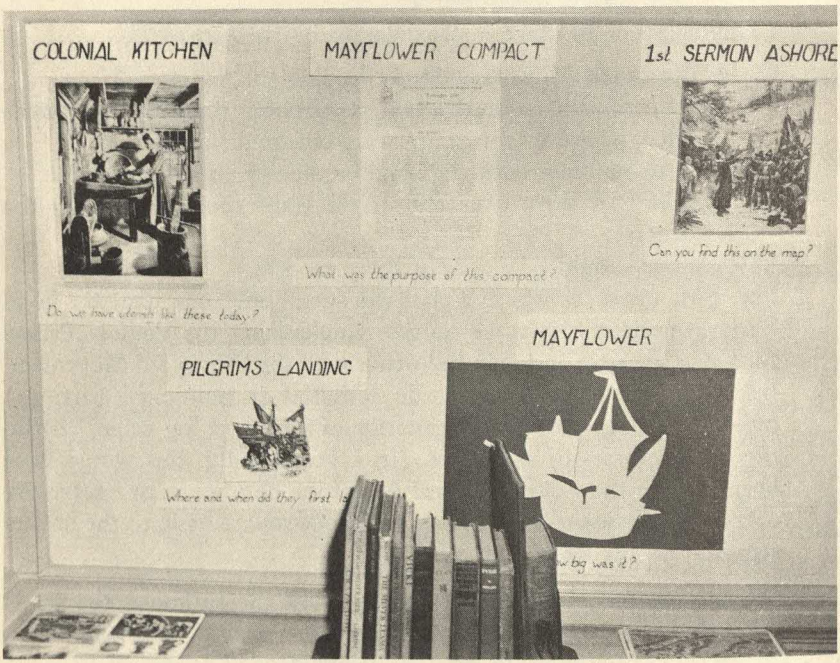
A. Arranged environment:
1. Pictures of Pilgrims, their arrival, their homes, and of the Indians grouped attractively.
2. Selected books, attractively arranged and opened to interesting sections.
3. An exhibit of articles such as guns, Betty Lamp, utensils, costumes, sampler, etc.
4. An illustrated map of the early colonies.

B. Films, film strips, slides, etc.:

C. Reading story centering on the Pilgrim Colony:

The problem of initiating the unit—that is developing an initial interest in the area—is greater in the opening phase of the Colonial

Study than in the other two phases. If the teacher plans carefully, the children themselves will see the leads from one phase to the next. However, the teacher should introduce suggestive material at the proper time to help the children feel the need to move into the next phase. For example, at the end of the Colonial Study, through discussion, stories and films, the children can be led to see that people were beginning to seek new lands for various reasons.



V. *Possible Sequence of Experiences*

A. EARLY COLONIAL LIFE

Using this sequence involves much study and reconstruction of family life (duties, customs, religion, recreation, etc.) and the relationship of the family to the Colonial community. While centered on one colony, comparative studies should be made (through reading, stories, pictures, murals, etc.) of the other colonies. Many activities have been suggested below. A real understanding of the life of Colonial times is built upon *actual experiences* in the life processes of those times. The more the children experience the activities suggested below, the better will be their understanding.

Needs Which Will Probably Arise	Experiences Involved	Content
1. To build the interior of a Colonial home: The Pilgrims.	Make a fireplace and wings, life size, for atmosphere of the interior of a Colonial home. (This to be done quickly with inexpensive materials.) Begin to live in the Pilgrim home (dramatic play). Begin a map of the United States which will develop in detail as children move into the various phases of Early American life. (In this first phase they will probably identify the major colonies and early roads.)	Where did the Pilgrims settle? Where did they come from? Why? What materials did they use for building their homes? How were the houses built? Did they have glass to use? Who were the Puritans? When did they come to the New World? Compare their homes with those of the Pilgrims; other colonies.

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Needs Which Will Probably Arise	Experiences Involved	Content
	Make authentic models of the types of Puritan shelters for purposes of comparison with Pilgrim homes. Begin a time-line showing exploration and settling of Atlantic Coast. Sing songs of period and about life experiences (e.g., Puritan and Pilgrim Psalms).	
2. To make furniture for the house.	Make table, stools, beds, cradle.	What furniture did the Pilgrims bring with them from Europe? What furniture did they make themselves? Of what materials were they made?
3. To make utensils.	Make wooden trenchers and spoons, horn spoons, salt cellar.	What kinds of utensils did the Pilgrims have? Did they bring any with them? Which ones did they make when they came? What tools and materials were used? Did the Puritans bring and use any different utensils?

4. To learn about the work of the men and boys (in addition to the building of the houses and making of furniture and utensils).	Make one or two muskets for dramatic play. Grind corn for meal. Do dramatic play and dramatic rhythms about hunting, fishing, planting, etc. (These processes should be illustrated and further understood through the various creative experiences in music, art, rhythms.) Keep a family diary of the activities of home and community. (This could be a class diary or individual.) Write a Compact for your class that will do for your class what the Mayflower Compact did for the Pilgrim Community. Hold a Town Meeting to discuss the problems of the Pilgrim Community. Then hold a Town Meeting to discuss the problems of your own classroom.	Why was the gun important to the work of the men? What kind of gun did they use? How did they hunt? What animals did they hunt? What fishing did they do? What forest vegetation did they learn to use for food? What crops did they plant and how? When did they get cattle and how were they cared for? How did the Indians help them? What chores did the boys do? How did they settle their community problems? Was this a good way to work? Why?
5. To learn about the work of the women and girls.	Cook succotash or other dishes over an open fire. (Follow procedures for safety with open fires described in Pioneer study.)	How did the Pilgrim woman cook? What foods did she prepare? How? How were foods preserved for future use?

Needs Which Will Probably Arise	Experiences Involved	Content
	Do dramatic play of women's activities.	How did she wash clothes?
	(These processes should be illustrated and further understood through creative experiences in music, art, rhythms).	How did she clean house?
		How did she care for her children?
	Make a class sampler.	What chores did the girls do?
6. To have a thanksgiving feast.	Plan a feast for the class.	When did the Pilgrims celebrate the First Thanksgiving?
	Prepare it in ways as nearly like the Pilgrims as possible.	What kinds of food were eaten?
	Eat it with the ceremonials and procedures of the actual First Thanksgiving. (Here we can compare the foods and conditions then with our modern Thanksgiving.)	Where did they get the food?
		How was it prepared?
		Who came and what did they bring?
		How did the First Thanksgiving compare with our Thanksgiving today?
		What were they thankful for?
		What should we be thankful for?
7. To learn what the Pilgrims used for light.	Make a Betty Lamp.	What did the Pilgrims do for light?
		Why were the candles a luxury?
	Make a mural or large picture showing various ways of lighting in the Pilgrim community.	When were candles made for everyday use? Why could the Puritans make so many?
	(The actual making of candles will be postponed until the Pioneer Study.)	

8. To learn how the Pilgrims told time.	Make a sunstick. Make an hourglass. Mark the sun that comes through the window of the classroom and keep record of time. Make a comparative chart of (1) ways of telling time in Pilgrim days and (2) how we get correct time today.	What different ways were the Pilgrims able to tell time? How did the people know when the day started? How often did the Settlement Drummer beat his drum? How accurate was their time? *

* NOTE: By this time the children have acquired a rich background in the life processes and customs of the Pilgrim home. Before moving on to the next historical phase, they should have much opportunity to utilize the things they have made and the knowledge acquired in reliving the many events and daily procedures of Pilgrim life. It is as they live these satisfactorily that they will establish real feeling for Early America that will never be forgotten.

B. PIONEER LIFE

This sequence enables us to emphasize with children the wilderness that was America and the courage and skill of the frontiersmen who explored it.

Needs Which Will Probably Arise	Experiences Involved	Content
1. To build a lean-to (hunter's camp) and live the life of the hunter pioneer.	Make a lean-to. Make a map of the area showing the trails. Continue the time-line begun in the Pilgrim study. Relive the daily life and adventures of the wilderness.	Who were the hunter pioneers? How did they live? Where did these men go? How did they get along in the wilderness? How did they pave the way for later settlements?

Needs Which Will Probably Arise	Experiences Involved	Content
2. To learn how these hunters prepared and cooked their food.	Make a fireplace for open cooking on school grounds or nearby backyard with principal's consent and supervision. (This is an excellent opportunity for contact with the Fire Department to obtain a fire permit and plan safety measures for an open fire if this experience has not been undergone in the Pilgrim study.) Cook meat, make johnny-cake, etc.	What kinds of food did the hunters have? Where did they get it? How was it prepared?
3. To learn how the pioneer hunter hunted, trapped, and fished.	Make a few flintlock rifles. Make a few powder horns. Make an ax. Make hunting knives. Make powder pouches. Draw pictures of the forests and animals. Do dramatic rhythms of forest animals. Do creative music of forest life. Play life in the settlement at same time that hunters are living in lean-to and forest.	What weapons did the hunter use? Which animals did he hunt? Which did he trap? How did he trap? What did he do with the pelts? How did he fish? What were the families of the hunters doing while the men were hunting and trapping in the wilderness?

4. To build a fortified settlement in the wilderness (Boonesborough).	Make a plan and build an authentic miniature model of Boonesborough with careful detail of stockade, buildings and arrangements. (Since the children did not build a real log cabin in the colonial study, this is an opportunity for experience with notching small boughs, in place of logs, to build cabin-structures. The use of pipe-stem models of people will help to determine size of fort.) Do a mural or a number of large pictures showing the different steps in the building of the fort. Draw a map locating the major settlements of pioneer times in the Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee territory. Relive the building of the fort through dramatic play.	How did the wilderness get settled? Who were the settler-pioneers? How did they differ from the hunter-pioneers and farm settlers? What were the characteristics of a fortified settlement like Boonesborough? Where did the people come from? Where were the settlements located?
5. To make the people for the settlement.	Make and dress pipe-stem dolls in characteristic clothing. Sketch designs for the clothing of that time. If material is available make a few life-size costumes to be used in dramatic play.	How did the men dress? How did the women dress? Did the children's clothes differ from the adults? Where did they get their clothes?

Needs Which Will Probably Arise	Experiences Involved	Content
6. To find out how the Pioneers got their cloth.	Have experiences with washing, carding and spinning wool. Make a box loom and weave some cloth. Plant flaxseed. Break, hackle, and spin flax fibers.	Could the Pioneers buy cloth? Of what was the Pioneers' cloth made? Who usually made it? How?
7. To convert the colonial house into the interior of a cabin in Boonesborough Fort.	Make drawings to show the difference in construction between Pioneer and Pilgrim homes. Utilize things and processes made for the Colonial home that were also used by the Pioneers, while beginning to add those processes that the children did not experience in the Colonial Study. With these, begin to live the life of Pioneers in a Boonesborough cabin.	How did the Pioneer home differ from the Pilgrim's home? What articles and processes did they have that were similar? Which ones were different?
8. To relive life in the fort and Pioneer's cabin. (This would be going on continuously while developing the processes that were not a part of Pilgrim life but were a part of Pioneer life.)	Live the daily events of the fort in dramatic play sequences. Illustrate life in the fort through various art activities. Recreate the life experiences of the Pio-	What was the daily life in the fort? What was the work of the men? What did the women do? How did they plant crops? Where? How did they care for their animals?

	neers through dramatic rhythms, creative music, murals, etc. Hold a house-raising party. Learn the dances, songs, and stories of the times. Hold a spelling bee, etc.	What kinds of recreation did they have?
9. To find out about the Pioneers' foods.	Prepare foods not already used in previous studies such as: johnnycake, stews, butter, cottage cheese. Play planting and harvesting, making salt, sugar, etc.	What kinds of foods did the Pioneers have? Where did they get them? How were they prepared?
10. To find out how the Pioneers cleaned their clothes and dishes.	Make soap. Play "wash day." Play "clean-up after dinner" in a Pioneer home.	Did the Pioneers have soap? Where did they get it? How was soap made? Did they have any other methods of cleaning? How did they wash their clothes? How did they wash their dishes?
11. To find out how the Pioneers made their quilts.	Make squares for a quilt. (Every child in the room could make one square.) Hold a quilting bee.	Whose job was it to make the quilts? How was it done? What was a quilting bee?

Needs Which Will Probably Arise	Experiences Involved	Content
	Put squares together to make a quilt. (This could be a baby quilt or could be a quarter of a large quilt to be put together with those of other classes from a previously chosen pattern to be used by the Junior Red Cross.)	
12. To find out what the Pioneers used for lighting.	Render tallow and make candles by both hand-dip and mold methods. Make a few candle holders for the cabin.	What kinds of lighting did the Pioneers have? Did they introduce candle-making or had the colonials other than the Pilgrims introduced it? How did they make candles?

C. MOVING WESTWARD

This sequence enables us to emphasize the great variety of physical conditions of our country. Early modes of transportation and early trails should be compared to present-day developments.

Needs Which Will Probably Arise	Experiences Involved	Content
1. To construct the town of Independence in miniature. (The purpose here is to help the children visualize a	Construct some of the main buildings of the town of Independence. (These should be built in proportion to the	From where did the people come who moved west to Oregon and California? What routes did they use to get to In-

frontier town, at the last convenient point of contact with settlements and river transportation, so that they may acquaint themselves with the stores and equipment used to prepare wagon trains for the West.)	miniature people, remembering that they will be used in dramatic play to start the wagon trains westward.) Continue the illustrated map of the United States begun in the Colonial Study, locating towns, trails, and river routes. Relive historic incidents of the town through dramatic play. Illustrate the various types of buildings and activities in the town through sketches and paintings and creative stories. Many of these activities can be beautifully demonstrated through dramatic rhythms and creative music.	dependence? How did they get there? What did they bring with them? What could they buy at Independence? Why was the town of Independence important to the Westward Movement?
2. To construct the Conestoga wagons in which to move west. (It is not necessary for every child to make a covered wagon. It is suggested that the class be organized into families and that each family build and furnish a wagon and make the people that go with it.)	Plan and build the covered wagon. Demonstrate through the various arts the building of the covered wagon. Illustrate the various modes of transportation used to move west.	What means of travel did the Pioneers use to move west? Why was the Conestoga wagon important? Why was it named Conestoga? How was it made? Where did they get the materials to make the wagons? What animals were used to pull the wagons? Why?

Needs Which Will Probably Arise	Experiences Involved	Content
3. To furnish the wagon for the trip. (These activities can go on at the same time that the wagons are being built.)	Make furniture and utensils taken on trip. Devise sacks and boxes to be loaded for supplies. Make tools needed for the trip. (All the above are, of course, miniature size to fit into the Conestoga wagons.) Make the people for each family and dress them authentically. Prepare charts showing supplies needed and quantities for the trip.	What equipment and supplies did the Pioneers bring with them from their old homes? What could they get in Independence? What supplies were needed to make the trip west? How many people usually traveled with one wagon? Where and how did the people live while they were preparing their wagons for the trip?
4. To begin the trip to the West. (At this point it is necessary for the class to choose the trail that they will follow westward. Most traveled was the Oregon Trail. Therefore we will follow it in this sequence, comparing it to other trails as we go. However, it is possible to take the Santa Fe Trail for intensive experience and compare it with the others.)	Pack and organize the wagons and get ready to leave the town of Independence. (At this point we must emphasize the opportunities here for making this great trek real to the children through dramatic play. They can actually play the outfitting of their wagons in the shops of Independence, the choosing of the wagon leaders and the incidents of	How did people organize their wagon trains to go west? What was the responsibility of the leader? What was the work of the scouts? What was a typical day of travel like? When and how did they prepare their meals? When did the day begin? When did

travel. It can be done with the miniatures and also with children playing out events on their own level. Many activities that follow in this outline imply dramatic play. For detailed discussions see section on Dramatic Play at the back of this outline.)

Choose wagon leaders and organize the train.

Prepare maps of the Oregon Trail in detail.

Prepare an actual trail on classroom floor or school grounds for the wagons to use. (It is possible to plot out relative distances and directions with chalk on the classroom floor. Mountains, rivers, deserts can be specified. This is an excellent way to make a map real for children.)

Keep diaries of the trip.

Continue to play incidents of the trail such as:

Fording of streams
Camping for the night
Meeting Indians

they stop for the night? What did they do in the evenings?

What was the route they traveled? What was the country like? What other trails were traveled?

How much progress did they make each day?

Needs Which Will Probably Arise	Experiences Involved	Content
	Crossing the Rockies Meeting animals Hunting for meat	
5. To culminate the accumulating experiences of the trip by planning a great trek involving starting from Independence, typical incidents of the trip, and final arrival in either California or Oregon.	After a class has explored the conditions and incidents of the Westward Movement they are ready to take a day to relive what they know in a great trek across the West. This may be done several ways: (1) It may be done on the school yard, or better still, (2) the class may go out to nearby open fields. Holding a great trek involves the following: 1. Laying out a route on school yards or in fields that would represent the Oregon Trail. (Rivers and mountains are marked so that the children can relive the appropriate activities at those points.) 2. Planning supplies and amounts needed. (In this case, real food to be cooked on the trip.)	All the information that has been gathered about: 1. Wagon trains and people. 2. The country traveled and trails. 3. The historical conditions and incidents that occurred.

3. Preparing equipment for cooking on the road.
4. Organizing the wagon train. (Here the miniatures will be used but larger express wagons will also be needed to carry the real food the children expect to prepare for themselves.)
5. Taking the trip.
   Trails marked will be followed.
   Real trail incidents will be relived.
   The train will stop for the night; food will be prepared and eaten, and the people will entertain each other with songs, dances, stories of the times.

VI. *A Note On Culminations*

From time to time throughout the Early American studies there will be appropriate points of culmination when children are ready to (1) organize what they have learned in order to enjoy it themselves and (2) to organize their learnings to share with their parents and others. For example:

In the Colonial Study–

1. The children may wish to hold a Thanksgiving dinner purely for their own enjoyment.
2. At the end of this Colonial Study they may present a work-type culmination to their parents involving:
   a. A display of maps and time-lines.
   b. Presentation of models and other things made, with explanations of the processes involved.
   c. Reports on the different colonies.
   d. A presentation of some of their creative efforts.

In the Pioneer Study–

1. The children may undertake a pioneer house-raising party for their own enjoyment.
2. At the end of this Pioneer Study they may present a work-type culmination for their parents involving:
   a. A display of maps, time-lines and charts that pick up the Colonial Study and show the development westward into the Ohio country.
   b. A demonstration or display of some of the life processes such as candle making and soap making.
   c. A display of Boonesboro with detailed reports on life in frontier forts.
   d. And other activities similar to those described in the Colonial culmination.

In the Westward Movement Study–

1. A great trek for the children's own enjoyment.
2. A work-type presentation as described above.

Relationships to Other Areas of the Curriculum

I. *Some Illustrative Related Skill Experiences*

The social studies program as developed through the technique of the unit of work is not only a means of informing children about their culture and other world cultures, but it is also a vital way of affording children working experiences with fundamental skills. Children need to *feel the need* for a skill, *understand its social function* and then have *systematic instruction* and *practice in it.* The teacher must plan just as carefully for functional skill experiences in the unit as she does for informational material.

Throughout their experiences the children will need to read most carefully in order to acquire the necessary knowledge for carrying on the life activities of the times accurately. The teacher has excellent opportunities for guiding children to (1) use authentic materials, (2) read for specific detail, (3) enjoy historical literature, and (4) share their knowledge for group purposes.

The carrying forward of the many life processes suggested involves much cooperative work. The group will need to plan together. The give-and-take of oral discussion provides opportunity for oral English development of (1) presenting a plan or problem to the group, (2) making suggestions to others, and (3) reporting progress. The teacher can guide the children to good English standards in all these activities.

The making of a plan or report also provides opportunity for improving written work in all its aspects—sentence and paragraph form, punctuation, spelling and handwriting.

The opportunities for mathematical development are innumerable. Distances must be computed, time spans studied, and quantities needed for trips and expeditions estimated. Measurement and proportion for construction work and weighing of amounts for processes and for the loading of wagons are all essential to the activities involved.

In the following list are itemized some specific illustrations of skill experiences possible in this study. They are, of course, only a partial list, for many more such experiences are inherent in this Early American Study:

A. The Language Arts:

1. Writing creative stories about the Pilgrims in England and Holland.
2. Making oral and written reports on the establishment of Plymouth Colony.

3. Keeping a family diary of the events in the daily life of the Pilgrims.
4. Preparing a Mayflower Compact.
5. Writing a Compact for your class or school.
6. Holding a Town Meeting and presenting problems to the class.
7. Keeping a vocabulary list of new words needed for this unit.
8. Keeping a daily diary of the activities in the unit of work.
9. Writing creative stories about the scouts and pioneers who explored the Ohio country—imaginary trips and adventures of the Wilderness Trail.
10. Preparing oral and written reports on the frontier and the life of Daniel Boone.
11. Reading about and reporting on descriptions of the hunter's camp, the early forts and pioneer homes.
12. Writing letters to historical centers and societies for information on early settlements.
13. Writing to the Fire Department for a permit to make an open fire.
14. Reading and following directions for pioneer cooking recipes.
15. Holding spelling-bees on words most frequently needed in the class work.
16. Writing creative stories about different individuals, going West or about characters in the town of Independence.
17. Making lists of items needed in outfitting a wagon.
18. Keeping a diary of the trip West.
19. Preparing reports and speeches for culminating programs.

B. Mathematics:

1. Keeping a record of the amount of time involved in boat travel from Europe to Plymouth and comparing with modern modes of travel and time schedules.
2. Keeping a time-line of the development of our country.
3. Using yardsticks, rulers and tri-squares in the construction work of the Pilgrim interior, lean-to, fort and Conestoga wagons.
4. Measuring quantities in the making of soap, candles, cooking of foods, etc.
5. Developing proper proportion in the making of authentic miniatures such as Boonesborough Fort, Conestoga wagons, etc.
6. Planning proper quantities for expeditions or for class dinners.
7. Planning a budget for the purchase of needed foods for such a dinner and spending money accordingly.

8. Drawing maps to scale to show early trails and modern highways, etc.
9. Making a floor map to scale over which to take the miniature wagons.
10. Making charts to show relative time involved in travel from place to place then and now.

C. Geography:

1. Making illustrated maps to show early colonies, first roads, early frontier settlements, trails west.
2. Making a relief map to study continental divide, rivers, plains, and mountains.
3. Using commercial maps to locate significant places and trails.
4. Studying conditions of climate involved in crossing the country in order to incorporate these in diary accounts and dramatic play.
5. Making a floor map or one on school grounds, marking the main routes to be followed westward with the miniature wagons.

II. *Suggested Art Activities*

NEW ENGLAND COLONIES (*Possible subjects for illustration*)

A. Early Settlers Leave Their Home Land:

1. Country from which they set sail, type of country, type of dwellings.
2. Typical dress worn by men, women, and children.
3. Embarking at wharf. Household and other articles loaded on boat. Transporting these to boat.

B. Transportation:

1. Type of boat used. Boats in weather difficulties—as rain, wind storms, dark of night at sea.
2. Comparative size of sailboat and ocean liners of today.
3. Activities on boat—cooking, sleeping quarters, deck activities, laundering.

C. Arrival in North America:

1. Landing in new country: unloading men for reconnaissance trip; later women, children, and supplies.
2. Type of country—rocky New England shore line, dashing water, narrow beaches, pine trees.
3. Jamestown—entrance through wide slow-flowing river, trees on shore.

D. Natives of America:

1. Meeting the native American—the Indian. His general appearance and dress: in loin cloth, in furs and leggings. Type of hairdress of warriors, of women, of children.

2. Indian dwellings—the wigwam, the stockade.
3. Indian activities—hunting for food, and furs; making dugouts and canoes; fishing in rivers and ocean; cultivating crops of corn, pumpkins, etc.; moving with the seasons from one location to another.
4. Life within the stockade—cooking; making wearing apparel of furs; making bows and arrows; festivals and dances; contacts with colonists, in hunting, fishing, cultivating; Thanksgiving, etc.
5. Later—Indian attacks on the colonists.

E. Colonists in New Country:

1. Building temporary shelter—English wigwams, dugouts, cave houses, barkpeelers' huts, charcoal burners' huts.
2. Felling and cutting logs for and building cabins; building the forts and churches.
3. Hunting for food—with Indian guides; bringing back the game.
4. Fishing in streams, rivers, and sea. Fishing boats of earlier times. Bringing in the catch, caring for, salting and drying it. Whaling boats with crow's-nests, lowering small boats, spearing whale in rough weather, along rough shoreline, etc.
5. Clearing land, cultivating, planting, harvesting crops—of corn, pumpkins, beans, etc., digging wells, grinding the corn. Planting fruit trees; later, harvesting the fruit; planting and caring for flax.
6. Activities of women—cooking over open fires, before fireplace, caring for children, making garments of fur for hunters.
7. Laundering in stream or in tubs, drying clothes on grass, etc.
8. Different seasons of the year—autumn with its harvest, winter with its snow, rains of spring.
9. Livestock—care of animals as they were brought to the colony from Europe; cattle, sheep, pigs, fowls, horses, etc.; shearing sheep; building fences.
10. Wild animals native to New England—deer, fox, beaver, etc.; fowls—wild turkey, various birds.
11. Social life of community—working together on community activities such as building houses, forts, churches, fences, etc., fishing, hunting, celebrating feast days, harvesting crops, husking and apple bees, meat killing and curing.

F. Life—Then and Now:

Comparative illustrations of active life of colonists in their primitive struggle for the necessities with the simple life of today—such as getting water from stream or well, through broken ice, heating over open fireplace, *or* turning on a tap in our kitchen,

bath, garden, for hot or cold water; cooking and heating—felling and cutting and bringing in logs for fireplaces and stoves, *or* turning on gas and electricity in modern stove or furnace; lighting—Betty lamp, *or* pushing an electric button for illumination of home; tilling the soil with a hand plow, *or* driving a power tractor.

G. Techniques:

1. Individual illustrations. The possibilities for illustrations at all phases of the study of Early American Life are unlimited and can be very picturesque if emphasis is placed on the individual pupil's concept, plus information on the subject to be drawn. The spinning should be comparatively correct; the whaling boat has its masts and crow's-nest, etc. Emphasis on good color, dark and light, to tell the story. Each attempt should be finished as well as each individual is capable.
   Mediums—chalk, water color, poster, crayola.
2. Murals—after enough information as to the subject and setting has been collected.
3. Craft possibilities—samplers.
4. Picture maps showing location of various colonies and comparative dates, type of country, houses, animals.*

III. *Suggested Music Activities*

A. Singing songs of the historical period related to people and their activities, e.g., *Old Zip Coon, Cumberland Gap, Skip to My Lou.*

B. Playing:

1. Auto-harp and harmonica accompaniments to songs.
2. Development of song-extension using orchestra bells, xylophone, ocarinas, tonettes, flageolets, violin, rhythm instruments.

C. Composing:

1. Songs of life activities, joys, sorrows, struggles, achievements.
2. Instrumental and rhythm accompaniments to songs, dances, and dramatic rhythms.

D. Listening to records of early American Music—e.g., *Aunt Dinah's Quilting Party, Little Brown Church, Home Sweet Home.*

IV. *Suggested Creative Rhythmical Activities*

A. *Creative Rhythmical Activities*

1. Rhythmical expression, dramatic and creative rhythms should be based on:
   a. Firsthand experience
   b. Observation
   c. Knowledge gained through

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* NOTE: A similar list of subjects for illustration during the study of Pioneer Life and Westward Movement is included in the original unit.

(1) Reading
(2) Explanation by teacher or others in field,
(3) Visual aids—pictures, posters, etc.

2. Rhythms—Activities of Early Pioneers:
   a. Processes used in work of women such as making candles, making bread, quilting, spinning, weaving; pouring, kneading, sewing, treading.
   b. Processes used in work of men such as building, digging, cutting trees, planting, taking care of crops, hunting, making covered wagons.

B. *Recreational Rhythmical Activities—Early American Dances*
There is a wealth of material in the Early American Folk Dances for this period.

Dances

Sicilian Circle—S. M., p. 283
Uncle Steve's Quadrille—P.E.S. 456, pp. 92-99
Old Dan Tucker—S. M., p. 320
Minuet—P.E.S. 456, p. 75
Cowboy Schottisch—P.E.S. 456, p. 141 (Music—Turkey in the Straw, P.E.S. 456, p. 153)
Pop Goes the Weasel—P.E. IV, p. 20; S.M., pp. 196, 320
Irish Lilt—P.E.S. 456, p. 74 (Music—Irish Washerwoman)

Records

Captain Jenks—Victor 20639
Irish Washerwoman—Victor 21479
Oh Susanna, Arkansas Traveler—Victor 26638
Pop Goes the Weasel—Victor 20151
Quadrille, Figures I and II—Victor 20638
Quadrille, Figures III—Victor 20639
Sicilian Circle—Victor 20639 and 22991
Ticknor's Quadrille—Victor 25771
Turkey in the Straw—Victor 20447
Virginia Reel—Victor 20447
Yankee Doodle, Dixie Melodies—Victor 24178

V. *Suggested Science Activities*

A. *Science and Invention that led to Discovery and Settlement of North America*

1. Development of boats seaworthy enough to cross Atlantic
   a. History of how boats developed.
   b. Compare Mayflower with ocean liners of today.
   c. Compare methods of propelling (oars, sailing, etc.) early boats with those of today.

2. Development of the science of navigation
   a. Use of stars and sun in navigation.
   b. Invention of astrolabe. What now takes its place: (sextant).
   c. Invention of compass or magnetic needle. Explain scientific principle of compass.
3. How new theories regarding shape and movements of Earth led to discovery of America
   a. Theory of Copernicus regarding solar system.
   b. Belief that the earth was round instead of flat.

B. *Life in the Colonies*

1. Houses
   a. Materials used: wood and bricks. What woods were used? How are bricks made?
   b. Tools used in preparing lumber and in building.
   c. Of what were windows made at first? Glass was used later. How is glass made?
2. Clothing
   a. Materials used: wool, flax, leather.
   b. What were the sources of wool? How prepared?
   c. From what is flax obtained? How prepared? What is cloth made from flax called?
   d. Where did the colonists get leather? Tell how leather is tanned.
   e. How were the dyes for making the following colors obtained? Blue, yellow, green, brown, black. How were colors set (made fast)?
3. Food
   a. Cultivated plants: grains, vegetables, fruits grown from seed brought from old country or obtained from Indians.
   b. Obtained from nature: berries and other wild fruits, etc.
   c. Corn: how cultivated and fertilized.
   d. Animals: those brought from old country such as cattle, swine, sheep, goats, poultry.
   e. Those furnished by nature such as deer, bear, rabbits, squirrels, turkeys, ducks, geese, fish, oysters, etc.
   f. Guns used in obtaining game: Matchlock and flintlock. Describe each.
   g. Other means of obtaining game: fishing, trapping, snaring.
4. Other Home Needs
   a. Lights: Pine torch, candlewood, candles, grease lamps.
   b. Candles were made from wax, tallow, and spermaceta.
   c. Wax was obtained from honeycomb, and the bayberry; tallow from different animal fats and spermaceta from the head of the sperm whale.

d. How was oil obtained for Betty Lamps, etc.?

5. Fires
   a. How started: by use of tinder box, or by borrowing. Explain.
   b. Importance of keeping fires going continually.
   c. Did they have matches then? If not, when were they invented?
6. Telling Time
   a. Hourglass, sundial, use of sun and shadow, clocks. Explain each device or method.
   b. Why were clocks scarce at first? How were first clocks made? Compare with those of today.
7. Table and cooking utensils
   a. What answered for a stove? Explain arrangement.
   b. What vessels were used for cooking?
   c. Of what were dishes made at first? Was chinaware common? From what is china made?
   d. How were pewter spoons made? What is pewter? Would one be allowed to make pewter spoons or dishes at the present time? Explain.
8. Other household needs
   a. Soap: explain how it was made.
   b. How and from what was ink made?
   c. How were pens for writing made? What did they use for blotters and pen wipers?
9. Plant and animal life
   a. What common trees were found along the Atlantic Coast?
   b. Name some common wild flowers the colonial children may have picked.
   c. What birds did they see?
   d. Name some common animals.
   e. Name some other kinds of animals found on land or sea.
   f. One insect was known as the seventeen-year locust. Describe it.
10. Minerals
    a. Name some minerals found and explain how they were used.
11. Climate
    a. Describe the climate of New England. That of Virginia. Compare the two. Why were they different?
12. Surface and topography
    a. Give reasons for the rocky surface of the earth in the northern colonies.

b. Why are the mountains found along the Atlantic Slope lower than those found in the West?
c. Why are there so many bays and inlets along the Atlantic Coast? *

(The original unit was concluded with sections on Library Bibliography and Audio-Visual Bibliography. They are not reproduced here since such lists should be prepared in the school system in which the unit is to be developed.)

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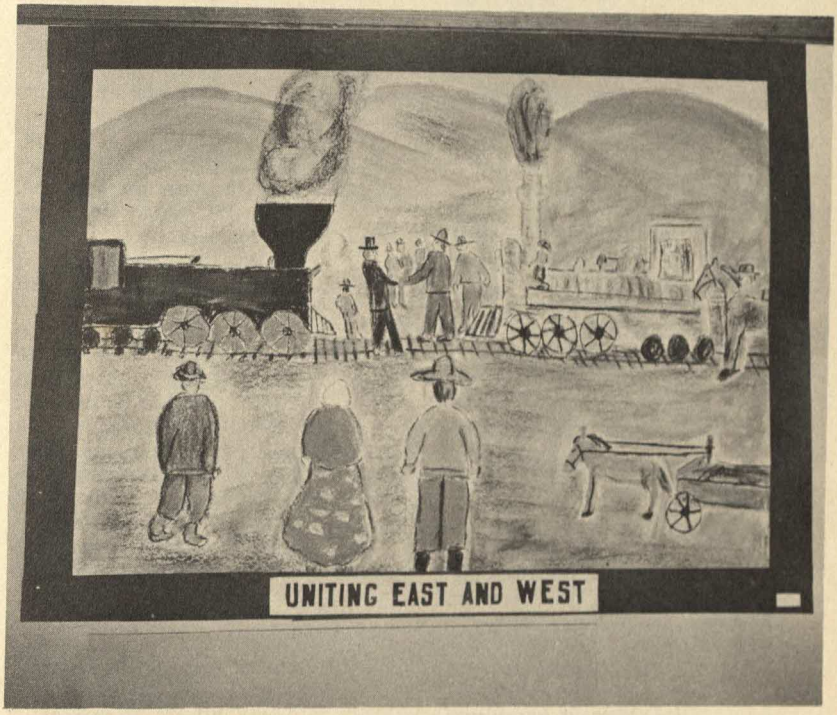
* NOTE: Similar suggestions are outlined for The Westward Movement in the original unit.



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